
Foundations of
Secondary Education

EDUCATION FOR LIVING SERIES

Under the Editorship of

H. H. REMMERS

Foundations of Secondary Education

CARL G. F. FRANZÉN

Professor of Secondary Education, Indiana University

To Florence
who has suggested that the title of this book should be
"Larn 'em or Bust"

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Editor's Foreword

LET us imagine a cultural anthropologist equipped with twentieth century knowledge beginning his work about 30,000 B.C. and, like Faust, having made a bargain that kept him young and vigorous for 32,000 years. As a scientist, having observed Western man and his ways for purposes of prediction, he published in 1000 B.C. the results of his observations over thirty-one millenia. In all of that time *homo sapiens* had changed very little in his ways of living, of coming to terms with his physical and social environment. Like any good scientist, therefore, the anthropologist extrapolated his observations and predicted that mankind would continue to live, love, and work as it had "always" done—and he couldn't have been more wrong.

The scientific method and the technology that it begot produced a cultural revolution—more often referred to as the Industrial Revolution—that is still apparently gaining momentum and developing into what is now being called Industrial Revolution II. Electronics and the principle of feed-back applied to industrial process are producing push-button factories in which only a few persons are required; and they will work only when something goes wrong in an electrical circuit or a machine breaks down. The office work relevant to industrial processes is also being robotized at a rapid rate via high speed electronic machines which can compute, remember, and record at levels of speed and accuracy previously beyond man's capacity to achieve. These machines will also in a few hours solve mathematical problems previously beyond solution because of the labor required when only mechanical aids were available. What the atomic age will unfold beyond the present possibility of a catas-

trophic atomic war of annihilation is still at this writing on the laps of the gods.

These developments have, of course, their profound implications for education. They are reflected, for example, in the census data that show a steady decrease in the agricultural population with a parallel sharp increase in agricultural production. The steadily increasing "service occupations" as well as the shortened industrial work week—also paralleled by a steady per man-hour productivity—clearly point to many problems in the solution of which education will necessarily play a major role. All aspects of life—physical and mental health, social, economic, and political problems—have changed and are changing at a rate that requires the youth of today and tomorrow to be educated in many ways differently than were the youth of yesteryear.

While this is obviously true for all youth, it is particularly and peculiarly true for the youth who will be the next generation of teachers, especially in a country unique in its aim to provide secondary education for all the children of all the people and not merely for "the more favored sons of the dominant social and political groups" to quote Professor Franzén. "To make kids better"—better citizens in a democracy, better economic producers and consumers—is an aim that has not changed during our existence as a nation, but the means of achieving it are today vastly more complex and different than they were in even the relatively recent past.

This, as Professor Franzén makes clear, means that the prospective teacher must look before and after. To understand the why of secondary education, historical origins, comparisons with secondary education in other countries, presecondary education and higher education—all must be studied. With a sprightliness and urbanity gratifyingly in contrast with much educational literature Professor Franzén develops his theme in this book. While he sets high standards of scholarship, he wears the mantle of scholarship lightly and with refreshing absence of pedantry.

While this book is intended primarily as a textbook for teachers in training, it can be read with profit by any citizen interested in knowing what his secondary education is up to. It should be required home work for those critics who write books about educational waste lands and quackery in our schools.

To the many generations of teachers who have taken his courses, Professor Franzén's statement of his own position as a teacher must have been a living reality: "As a teacher of this course I feel that I am teaching it because of my own personal interpretations. There are things that I consider it most worthwhile to pass on to you, my students. Here is the torch that I carry. It represents me and my generation. Light yours from mine and carry it on to the generation that follows you. If in handing on the torch you can make others happier and more understanding of what to do to make a better world, you have done all that could be asked. That's the greatest thing there is in life, anyway."

H. H. REMMERS

Preface

THE present offering in the way of a textbook in secondary education represents the author's experience over a span of thirty years in trying to persuade undergraduate prospective teachers that there is some merit to studying the whys and wherefores of our school system. He himself has used several texts during these three decades, changing from one to another in the hope that he might find one that would suit better his own evolving needs. During all this time he was selecting more and more those elements of the subject that seemed to him fundamental to an understanding and possible appreciation of the American school system. And so, little by little, his own course began to take shape.

This text is the result of his efforts. Ten years have gone into its actual production. Several generations of students have shared in its growth. It is by no means the last word. It doesn't pretend to be anything more than just what it is, a compilation of facts and ideas that one teacher in the field of secondary education has found stimulating to his students. He realizes full well that others who teach this course entertain their own points of view as to what should be taught. He hopes that his contribution may be of some assistance to them even though they may not fully agree with all that he has to say.

The eclectic approach seems to be the one that should be followed in any use of this particular text. The reason for this statement is that, in all likelihood, more material has been assembled and presented than most instructors have time or inclination to assign for study and discussion. The author's reason for this state of affairs is

Why Study Secondary Education?

ONCE upon a time anyone who showed a willingness to teach was permitted to do so. A mere willingness, however, was not always enough. The mores of the clientele might impose such restrictions as age, sex, and religious faith, not one of which had anything to do with the candidate's qualifications to teach. Such an attitude persisted for a long time, until, so far as we in America are concerned, elementary schools began to be popular in the early nineteenth century. An interest began, then, to be manifested in the qualifications of elementary school teachers. So far as the academies and grammar schools were concerned, all that was expected of their teachers was that they had attended college and that they knew something about the subject or subjects they were to teach. Elementary teachers, on the other hand, did not have to have such an advanced type of education, because all that they were to teach were the three R's, and, so went the opinion, "All that these teachers had to do was to teach what they already knew."

And so there developed a parallelism with respect to the preparation of elementary and secondary school teachers. The second group became indoctrinated in the belief that knowledge itself was all that they needed. "I know, therefore I can teach" became its slogan. Not so for the elementary teachers. Since their subject matter was already acquired, attention began to be paid to the warp in which this subject matter should be taught. Books on methodology, or pedagogy, as it was called, began to appear in the latter

part of the eighteenth century. So-called normal schools then appeared on the scene to offer a certain number of weeks, then a year, and finally two years to a review of the content of elementary school subjects and numberless courses on how to teach them.

It was not until the twentieth century that colleges and certifying agencies began to pay any attention to the professional side of the preparation of teachers for secondary schools. When this movement did take place it was the midwestern states that took the lead. They were dominated by their state-supported universities and state boards of education, whereas the failure of the Atlantic seaboard states to take any action along this line until quite recently may be laid at the doors of their strong, privately controlled colleges and universities.

Little by little the demand for some sort of professional preparation on the part of secondary school teachers has asserted itself, so that today it is practically universal, although the eastern states still come under the minimum required in the midwestern and western states. It is only natural to find that many and varied patterns have been experimented with in the past half century. At first, in order to compete with their academic colleagues, the new instructors emphasized the history and philosophy of education. Such courses were akin to those already being offered in their respective "academic" departments. But such instruction was just more of the same thing that had characterized the preparation of teachers in this country for 2½ centuries. Something more was needed, something that would bring the college student to a more intimate understanding of the problems he would face, something not quite so theoretical, in fact, something more practical.

During recent decades the experiences of teacher education and certification institutions and agencies, resulting from their trial and error organization of courses and credits, have come more or less to an agreement that 5 types of courses are the minimum a prospective secondary school teacher should be required to take. These courses are distributed among educational psychology, principles of secondary education, general methods of teaching, special methods of teaching the separate subject-matter fields, and supervised teaching. Individual states have instituted certain departures from this minimum, but the picture as a whole is about the same everywhere.

named above, their favorable attitudes are usually in reverse order to that in which they are listed. In other words, they say that their work in supervised teaching seemed most profitable and most worth while to them, while the course in educational psychology proved of least value or benefit. Their order of preference coincides with the practical, "learn-by-doing" nature of the course. It is the immediate that seems most worth while. The concrete, practical suggestions whose purpose is to set a blueprint for the teacher to follow make an appeal to those who see no further than the ends of their noses. And, the more definite the blueprint can be, the happier are those who plan to use it. They heave a sigh of relief, as it were, because the necessity for their doing their own thinking has thereby been reduced materially.

Such an attitude is not a healthy one to perpetuate, if we hope to educate teachers who will take their place in helping to solve the problems of this socially distraught world. Just to learn to be able to do a thing must be supplemented by some comprehension as to why that particular thing is being done. The world is filled with all too many people who accept the *status quo* too unquestioningly. The teachers of our adolescent boys and girls should not belong, too many of them, to the unthinking ones. But the paradox is that, as students, they have the least respect or regard for that part of their professional preparation that attempts to interpret to them the reasons for what they are supposed to do.

There are several explanations. First of all, the undergraduate is still an undergraduate and, most naturally, has an undergraduate's point of view. He looks upon a required course as something to be endured. In fact, in the majority of instances, the he is a she. But, whether he or she, there are students who come into education courses who really want to get all they can out of them, and there are those who don't. Some of the girls realize that they may never teach, or, if they do, that it will be for a matter of only a few years. Why, then, should they bother their pretty heads about the serious problems of cause and effect in the schools in which they may teach? "Theirs not to reason why."

What has been stated in the two previous paragraphs applies especially to the course called "principles of secondary education,"

or just "secondary education." This course took special form when Alexander Inglis came out in 1917 with his magnum opus, *Principles of Secondary Education*. This book has had several successors, but none has ever equaled the job that he did. If it were not for certain complications that have prevented or stood in the way of a revision of the Inglis book so as to bring it up to date, it would still, in all probability, be the standard text in the field. At any rate, Inglis is the man who set the pattern for the content of the course for which his book was designed. This content is historical, philosophical, and sociological. It tells the whys and wherefores of the American secondary school system from its origins to its present-day status. It does not tell the student how to teach, except in so far as methodology is inherent in history and philosophy, but it does try to tell the student something as to the reasons for doing what he will be called upon to perform when he teaches.

A Goal

That is what we are trying to give the prospective teacher. It isn't sufficient merely to do as others have done. Imitation is the technique that follows the path of least resistance. "I don't know where I'm goin', but I'm on my way" is the refrain of an old song that characterizes the social or philosophical objectives of all too many teachers. And yet this is the phase of preinduction education to which most students raise their objections. Again, I say, they are more interested, if interested they are, in learning *how* to do a thing rather than in analyzing *why* they are doing it.

Such an attitude seems strange, too, when viewed in the light of their own place in society. The difficulty may lie in their inability to transfer their personal problems and solutions to the problems and solutions of other individuals and even of groups. It is none too easy for an undergraduate to put himself in the place of the teacher he is to be except for the external attributes of the job. He can't project himself into a situation that calls for his understanding of what he is doing. All he can think of is how he can get the youngsters to behave, how to get them to study, how to make tests, etc., etc. One solution here offered is that a course of a philosophical and sociological nature might be offered and taken together with or following the work in student teaching. My own experience and that of

others would lead me to suggest that that would be a more profitable way to handle the course.

The attitude, it seems to me, that the instructor of a course in secondary education should take toward it might be expressed in the following words. "As a teacher of this course I feel that I am teaching it because of my own personal interpretations. There are things that I consider it most worth-while to pass on to you, my students. Here is the torch that I carry. It represents me and my generation. Light yours from mine and carry it on to the generation that follows you. If, in handing on the torch, you can make others a mite happier and more understanding of what to do to make a better world, you have done all that could be asked. That's the greatest thing there is in life, anyway."

And so the most important element to consider is the necessity of establishing favorable attitudes on the part of students toward the course. *This is true, we must acknowledge, of all courses, but* more so, it seems to me, with respect to required professional educational courses. After all, what makes a course? The content, the instructor, and his methods of teaching. A course goes by a certain name. It has as its base a textbook, but the instructor, if he has anything at all to give of himself to his students, uses the textbook to assist him with his own interpretations of what he has to give. He doesn't, at least he shouldn't, be a slavish, literal, adherent of the textbook. He has to put of himself and all that that means into his own interpretations. In the final analysis, the course is himself, not the textbook. In fact, two or more instructors may teach courses that go under the same name and depend upon the same textbook, yet these courses will differ as much as the personalities of the instructors differ. It is conceivable that the same student might take the same course under two or more men and obtain the equivalent of two or more supplementary courses.

The same is true of textbooks. They reflect the experiences, attitudes, personalities, and philosophies of their writers. Whatever any one of them considers important is included; likewise, what is unimportant to him doesn't see the ink on the pages of his book. An illustration is found in one of the more recent textbooks in the field of secondary education in which the author makes the flippant statement that the student doesn't need to know much about a certain

topic. Mere mention of it should suffice. Yet the author himself could not have expressed any attitude on the topic had he not had some background in it. In fact, it was this very background that enabled him to convey a very few points of view to the reader; but he did not choose to give his reader the benefit of acquiring even that little background that might have explained the situation more fully.

It is true that this particular author criticizes the emphasis on facts that do clutter up many books. If he were consistent, methinks, he would not have written a book himself, because, by so doing, he lays himself open to the charge that he, too, is giving facts. It is perfectly possible that he may counter with the defense that he is interested primarily in creating attitudes and that he doesn't need many facts as such to achieve his purpose. That sounds to me like "the blind leading the blind." The very lifeblood of attitudes is derived from facts. It is true that one may be given so many uninterpreted facts as to cause him mental indigestion, but, because this does happen at times, to inveigh against facts as an evil in themselves is to show the utmost disregard for what is really fundamental to all advancing knowledge.

What, I think, this author really dislikes is the "academic" treatment of courses in education. I am interpreting the term academic to mean the teaching of anything just for itself, the old art for art's sake idea, wherein the knowledge gained is just that much more put in the encyclopedic storehouse of the medulla, "where moth and dust do not corrupt, nor thieves break through and steal." I agree with him on this score. For this reason a course in secondary education should be more than a chronicle of facts and a display of charts and tables. It should convey the kind of information that any well-educated person of today ought to possess. The nation's schools are one of the biggest financial and social investments subscribed to by each generation. Why shouldn't we undertake to instruct as many as possible as to their duties, rights, and obligations in this large undertaking?

Look, for a moment, at the composition of any group of students, whether coeducational or not, and consider their future status. A large majority of them will marry. Most of them will have children. These children, so says society, must be sent to school. All will pay

taxes of one sort or another. Much of this tax money will be spent for the support of our public schools. Many, because they are in a professional education course, will teach in the schools. All will exercise the right of suffrage. Their votes will elect the powers that will control the schools. Some will be appointed to serve the schools as members of a board of education.

Just see how far-reaching the whole thing is. Parents, taxpayers, teachers, voters, and school board members. And who would deny that all should perform their tasks better in relation to the school system if they were required, yes, required, to become acquainted with and study the American secondary school? The sad part about the whole affair is that so many included in the categories listed, with the exception of teachers, spend four years on a college campus and learn so little, so very little, about the social instrument that has already affected their own lives so intimately and that will effect the lives of their own children. There does seem, doesn't there, to be adequate justification for a course in secondary education?

What, then, should an intelligent American citizen know about his own secondary school system? First, there is the question of origins. To understand why conditions are as they are today, to understand how important tradition is, we must know something of the history and development of the secondary school. If we know nothing of what peoples in other countries are doing to provide secondary education for their children, we become educational chauvinists. Our knowledge needs to be enlarged with respect to the place that the secondary school has in the educational ladder of democracy. Consequently, we need to know something of the elementary school that precedes and the higher education that follows, coupled with the status of those who do not finish their secondary schooling. With these introductory observations as our foundation we need to ask ourselves what it is that secondary education in a democracy hopes to accomplish. Are we not compelled, then, to familiarize ourselves with and analyze the various objectives that have been proposed and that are still being formulated? When we have selected a workable set of objectives, we shall attempt to find out how the school may achieve these objectives via the curricular and extracurricular life of the school. To conclude our story we shall consider the place

of the teacher as an individual, but from the professional angle. And there you have it. Now let us set out on our path of discovery, interpretation, and application.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. Examine some early books on pedagogy and compare them with any courses that you have had in education.
2. What was the nature of the courses offered in the early normal school?
3. Compare the tables of content of a half dozen contemporary books in the principles of secondary education. Account for some of the differences.
4. What, in your opinion, should be the preparation of a secondary school teacher?
5. What comments do you have to make on the good versus the poor teachers you had in secondary school so far as their preparation to teach was concerned?
6. Conduct a Gallup poll among some of your classmates who are not planning to teach to find out how much they know about our American secondary schools.

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The Beginnings of Secondary Education

WHEN it comes to the question of background, one may well ask how much is needed. It is possible to have too much as well as too little. Courses, many of them, are offered on both graduate and undergraduate levels dealing with the multifarious aspects of the historical development of all forms of school systems. Only a devotee of encyclopedic knowledge would even suggest that all of us should study the maximum number of courses. And only one who shows utter contempt for anything that smacks of the past would suggest that we abstain entirely from their study. Certainly, there is a medial road to follow, one which, if pursued, should help to keep us from being too ignorant about ourselves.

The Need for a Study of Origins and Background

Here is as good a place as any to pause for a moment to discuss the reason for spending our time on a study of origins and backgrounds. We have stated previously that an intelligent American citizen should acquaint himself with the world in which he lives. Part of this acquaintance consists of understanding the present in terms of the past. "There is nothing new under the sun," said the writer of Proverbs. What else did he mean than that, by giving due thought to the social reactions that have taken place among preceding generations, we can find counterparts in the life of today? History doesn't repeat itself, but it does hold up before us the panorama of like episodes occurring under similar stimuli at various stages in

man's development. History teaches us that like begets like. Recurring famines, pestilences, plagues, wars, social upheavals are the results of recurring causes. All too often, the clear-seeing have discerned these similarities and have warned us of impending consequences, but they have been Cassandra's in our midst.

But history gives us not only an inkling of what to expect if we have scanned her revelations of the past; she helps us to comprehend more fully the reasons for things as they are. The mores and institutions of today have not sprung full-blown from the brow of Zeus. Many of them have had their beginnings in the far distant past, so far, in some instances, that we are quite ignorant of the original significance of many things that we perform as ordinary, everyday routine. Why, for example, do men have buttons on their coatsleeves, why do gentlemen escorting ladies walk on the curb side of the sidewalk, why do we not eat peas with a knife, why do pupils in some schools stand up when they recite? This list can be extended endlessly. *It is given only to illustrate our contention that,* if we wish to find out the reasons for some of our vestigial elements of social behavior, we must delve into the past to satisfy our curiosity.

How, then, will all this type of information avail to make us more intelligent American citizens with respect to our secondary schools? Let us pose a few pertinent questions. Why does Latin have the hold that it does in the curriculum? Why has manual training failed? Why do many people believe that pupils who go to the secondary school should pay tuition? What is the universal appeal of secret societies and initiatory rites? Why has professional teacher education been so long in coming on the secondary level? Won't you agree that each of these questions presents a problem that finds both favor and opposition among our fellow Americans? And yet there must be reasons for opposing points of view. These reasons can be discovered only if we spend a little time searching the pages of the past for our answers.

EDUCATION IN PRIMITIVE SOCIETY

The study of origins takes us back to primitive society, which can best be described as a closely knit group of human beings who are isolated from other groups by geographical factors of mountain,

forest, desert, and water. Ignorance and fear have kept them from exploring into the unknown. But, no matter how isolated they may be, primarily because they are human beings, they have certain similar physical and social reactions. One of these is that boys and girls, but boys especially, begin to develop signs of adulthood along about a certain age. Prior to this stage the youngsters have been allowed to do pretty much as they pleased. The girls stayed around mother and imitated her as best they could. The boys played around in imitation of their elders, hunting, fishing, chasing, running, and "pretender" fighting. Why not? Weren't these the very things they would be called upon to do when they became the responsible elders of the tribe? Wasn't this the original "learning by doing" practice of preparing the youngster for his life as an adult?

But life could not be all play, all imitation. The time would come when the young generation would be called upon to enter the councils of their elders. Here is where the physical development of the boys played its important part. When a group of boys had reached a certain stage of pubic development, the elders considered that the time was ripe for these boys to be initiated into the mysteries and duties of manhood. Usually, the elders took the boys who were to be inducted into manhood to some spot remote from the camp or home site. The initiation ceremonies varied, of course, with the tribe, but ordinarily they consisted of the performance of physical tests of strength, endurance, fortitude, and cunning. The boys heard and memorized the metrical history of the tribe, and were often given new names and signs, visual and oral, of identification. Upon completion of all the tests, the boys were admitted to adult membership amid feasts and great rejoicing.

This description is a composite picture of what took place when a boy in primitive society received his secondary education. In fact, it was the only formal education he ever had. Everything else was natural, i.e., connected with his everyday performances. One interesting observation we must not overlook is that here we have the origin of the initiation ceremony that has come down to us literally through the ages. It has always been associated with adolescence and adolescent minds.

Development of the Caste System

But society didn't remain and hasn't always remained in the simple form we have just described. Wars of defense and conquest brought about ever increasing complexities. When one tribe conquered another, the vanquished became the slaves of the victors. Whereas all had been on an equal social footing, more or less (there were, of course, the chief and the shamans who had special functions), and all had performed the same manual labors of hunting, fishing, and fighting, now the slaves were assigned the more arduous tasks. Here we have the beginning of the caste system. Then, as more and more tribes were conquered and brought under the domination of the original victorious clan, more territory was occupied and more peoples were involved. This would be true even in cases where alliances resulted in the merging of two or more groups. The distance between the master and slave class tended to increase, and, almost before we know it, we have a class that perpetuates itself by living on and off the labors of others.

Furthermore, the increase in numbers has been associated with the development of separate trades. At first, each man did all his masculine work and the women did the agriculture, cooking, tailoring, and child raising. As society grew more complex, the slave system gradually developed among its members those who became skilled in the performance of individual skills. We have, thus, the beginning of the specialization of labor. And it was upon the fruits of this labor that the upper class began to subsist. The latter became the rulers, the leaders, the directors, the statesmen, the warriors. Now don't forget. These were the same people who, a few generations earlier, were doing everything themselves and giving their boys a physical initiation into manhood.

What happened to these tests of endurance and initiation ceremonies, as the composition of the tribe changed in character? How much of the old survived and how much of the new was introduced? Probably the most important survival was that of the individuality of the group. No matter how many changes had taken place in the clan or tribal composition by the accretion of other groups, one thing stood out above all others. This was the feeling of pride that

they had in their history and achievements, much of which was perpetuated in the rites and ceremonials, especially the dances, with which they impressed upon themselves and their youngsters the idea of oneness that bound them all together.

Growth of Tradition

But ceremonials were not the only means used to indoctrinate the oncoming generation. A certain lore had grown up in connection with the development of an oral tradition, the history, if it might so be called, of past events and achievements, which were handed down by word of mouth from one generation to the next. The shamans, the medicine men, and, later, the priests were the ones who naturally would be the retainers and purveyors of this oral tradition. It was absolutely necessary that the account be passed on word for word, without any changes whatsoever. The only changes permitted were those that added to the story the more recent deeds of derring-do. In order to assist the rote memorization of what turned out to be a long story, the epic, as it might be termed,¹ was cast into metrical form. It is obvious that the rhythmic cadence thus evolved would make it much easier to pass the tribal story on from generation to generation.

But all the time that the traditions of the group were increasing and crystallizing, the duties and obligations of the elders also increased and had to be modified. Consequently, it took a longer and longer time to carry on the short and comparatively simple initiatory rites that the boy used to have to undergo in order to have the seal of manhood bestowed upon him. Gradually, then, a certain time was set aside, first, a few weeks, then a year, and finally several years, in which a group of boys of the same initial adolescent age might receive instruction in the fields of their future responsibilities. Who would be their instructors? Why not the priests, who had become the repositories of the tribe's lore and customs? It is interesting to note that we find this same situation today in many countries, although the priests are often supplemented by another group that has made special preparation for teaching.

¹ This is what it actually became in the case of the *Iliad*, the *Bhagavad-Gita*, the *Eddas*, *Beowulf*, etc.

Content

The content, too, was changing. Although there was still much of the physical, it had taken on the character of what we call today a physical fitness program. The boy didn't have to hunt or fish except as a pastime; and he would learn the life of the warrior when he was taken into the army. But he did have to engage in strenuous physical activities. What occupied most of his time was his learning those things that his increasingly complex society had evolved, the acquisition of which marked him as a meet and proper member of that society. Of course, this content would vary according to the evolutionary status of the group. If only crude signs of communication had been developed, much of his learning would be by ear, the learning, that is, that was concerned with oral tradition. But when a written language was in existence, the boy had to be taught to read. Thus we have the beginnings of three of the fields of learning, physical fitness, history, and reading.

Then it became necessary for the boy to express himself in oral and written form. To do the latter he had to be able to analyze the way in which language was built. And so grammar was born. Then there were cases where navigation by land or sea brought about the study of astronomy. We all know the story of the annual inundation of the Nile Valley and its responsibilities for the emergence of geometry. With such demands made upon his time, it is no wonder that more time had to be devoted to preparation of adolescent youth for manhood.

EDUCATION IN THE GREEK POLIS

The first account of what we might call an organized attempt to set aside a specific time during which the boy should make the requisite preparation will be drawn from the Greek city state. But before we enter upon this narrative, we must mention that the practices we are to find in the Greek city state were the production of several centuries of tribal development, conquest, and progressive civilization. They do not of themselves picture the growth. They are the resultants of the growth. Consequently, make no mistake by assuming that what you will read concerning this landmark in edu-

cational evolution is an innovation. It has just as much in the way of backgrounds in its own society as has our own public secondary school in America. What we have not time for is to go into too many details so as to obscure our main purpose, which is to present the highlights of our own most important antecedents.

The Greek Citizen

The Greek city state of the fifth century B.C. is best represented by Athens, the capital of an era of cultural and personal development that has probably never been surpassed, if even equaled. However, when we read of the marvelous accomplishments of this age, how democracy flowered, and how great works of art and literature were produced, let us not forget that the Greek citizen was a free-man, a member of the master class, and that under him and for him worked the innumerable slaves, whose sweat and blood made possible his vaunted leisure and leadership. Little do we know of the hopes and aspirations of this group except that they were assigned the tasks imposed upon them by their masters, and that their children were supposed to follow in the footsteps of their parents. The utter despair that must have made itself felt time after time is well portrayed in Dunsany's *The Sword*. He tells of the utter hopelessness that engulfed the soul of the slave, the foreboding doom of death being his only chance of release. Then one day, as he was digging, he came upon a rusted sword, the possession of which gave him new courage and lit a spark of selfhood in him. Too seldom, when we point with pride to the accomplishments of the Greeks, do we think of the underdogs who were not members of their aristocratic, if democratic, order. They had a democracy, yes, but only if one was born into it. That is not our own ideal of what democracy means to us, although we do have those among us who prefer the ancient Greek system.

Education of the Athenian Boy

And now let us see what we find as we examine the preparation of the Athenian boy for his place in the state. This was the same goal that faced the boy in primitive society. If there was any difference, it was in degree, not in kind. The primitive boy could look forward to being a hunter, a fisher, a warrior, a chief. The Athenian

boy, the freeborn boy, could contemplate, first of all, that he would have the same right of suffrage as all his peers. Then he might become a soldier, an officeholder, a statesman, or a judge. He might become an orator, a dramatist, a poet, an architect, a sculptor, or a painter.

To become any one of these things he must first go to school for approximately an 8-year period, from about the age of 6 or 7 to that of 14. We say, "he." In all that has been related, so far, no mention has been made of girls. What is more, there will be no mention. We shall have to wait a good many centuries before we come upon any recognition of formal education for girls. As was the case with education in primitive society, "woman's place was in the home," a slogan that is even used today as an argument against permitting girls to continue with their education after the age of compulsory schooling. Women have had to wait a long time to be considered worthy of scholastic training equivalent to that of men.

Athenian society of the fifth century had reached the stage where letters and reading were the foundation for all subsequent instruction. The school to which the boy was sent was run privately. This means that there was no state control and no compulsion to attend. Sending boys to school was looked upon as the thing to do, so all went. Tuition was charged, the amount paid being the determining factor in the compensation of the teacher. Consequently, the children of wealthier parents tended to go to school longer than those whose parents were not so well-to-do.

The main objectives of the school were to teach the boy reading, writing, and simple number work, to ground him in the folklore and mores of his group, to make him an integral part of the abracadabra and symbolism of the religious rites that governed the lives of his associates, to give him practice in music and art, and to develop for him a beautiful and strong body.

Accounts of what the Greek boy actually did do not always agree on all details, but one of these accounts gives us a rather graphic picture of what might have taken place. As we read it, we follow the Greek boy from the time he leaves home until he returns.

Leaving home at daybreak, and with almost no clothing, the boys, each accompanied by his pedagogue, assembled at some appointed spot, and

thence walked through the streets, in rank and file, to school. . . . The pedagogue, usually an aged and worn-out slave, though not expected to impart to his ward any literary instruction, nevertheless played a large part in his education, being his guardian and monitor during the whole of the time that he was not immediately under the eye of his parents and teachers—that is, while he was on his way to and from school and during his hours of recreation and play, which were not short. . . .

It is not easy to determine how the daily program of an Athenian school was arranged; but it is not unlikely that the younger boys went to the palaestra in the morning and to the music school (or *didaskelion*) in the afternoon, while the older boys did the reverse. Assuming this, we shall follow the younger boys through a day. Arrived at the palaestra, they salute the training master, pay their respects to Hermes, the patron deity of physical culture, whose statue and altar occupy a prominent place, and then begin their exercises. These are suited to the age of the boys, and are therefore neither violent nor complicated. Their aim is to develop all the faculties of the body in a harmonious way, and to make it the ready and effective instrument of the will. No attempt is made to impart the athletic habit. The exercises consist of (1) running, (2) leaping, (3) discus throwing, (4) javelin casting, (5) wrestling. The first two were meant to exercise the legs, the second two the arms and eye, and the last the whole body and the temper. These exercises are varied with lessons in dancing and deportment whose purpose is to impart ease, grace, and dignity to every attitude and movement, and do away with awkwardness, forwardness, and bashfulness. A good deal of time was also given to play, during which the boys are allowed considerable freedom, and enjoy excellent opportunities for learning the principles of concerted action and of justice. In this way the forenoon is spent. About noon there is a recess, during which the boys partake of a simple meal brought them by their pedagogues. After this the boys are marched in order to the music school. Here, after saluting the master and uttering a brief invocation to the Muses and Apollo, whose statues adorn the schoolroom, they begin their mental gymnastics. These consist of singing, playing on the lute, writing, and reading. The boys sit on the ground or on low benches, while the teacher, armed with a rod, occupies an elevated seat. The exercises open with patriotic songs. The first is a religious song celebrating Zeus, Athena, or some great deity, and is sung in unison to a simple, old-fashioned Doric air; and the boys are encouraged to throw all the fire they can into both words and music. This is followed by a war song recalling some great national victory, and is rendered in the same spirit. Then follow other songs of different kinds, but all simple and strong, appealing to patriotic

and ethical emotions quite as much as to the musical sense. After the singing comes the lesson on the lute, in which the boys learn to play the airs to which their songs are sung. After the lute playing comes the instruction in writing. Each holds in his hands a wax-covered tablet, or rather a pair of folding tablets, and a stylus. These tablets contain the writing lesson of yesterday, which is the reading lesson of today. The boys go up in turn to the master, who punctuates the writing for them—that is, separates words and clauses (I am supposing that the boys we are following have already learned to write all the letters and syllables. This they usually did on boxes of sand or on sand strewed on the ground. The tablets were used when dictation began.), and then the reading begins. The first effort of the master is to make the boys read without stumbling or hesitancy; having accomplished this, he proceeds to make them read with due regard to expression, prosody, and pauses, and only after this has been done to his satisfaction does the reading lesson come to a close, when the boys are reminded that they are expected to commit the whole to memory against exhibition day. Other tablets are now produced, and the writing lesson begins. This is at the same time a dictation lesson, for the boys write down what the master recites. With this the lesson closes, the rest of the day till sunset being devoted to play under the eye of the pedagogues, who at last see their wards safely home before the streets are dark.

It is not pretended that the above picture is correct in every particular; but, on the whole, I believe it fairly represents the daily life of an Athenian schoolboy between the ages of seven and eleven. The above program may seem to us rather meagre. There is no arithmetic, no grammar, no geography, no drawing, no physical science, no manual training—only physical exercise, dancing, singing, playing, reading, and writing. And yet, if we examine the program carefully, we shall see that it was admirably adapted to the end in view, which was to make strong, well-balanced, worthy, patriotic citizens, capable, through bodily strength, courage, social motive, and intelligence of meeting every emergency of civil and military life. The first thing that strikes one about it is that it aims at developing capacity and not at imparting accomplishments or knowledge. Its purpose is to put the pupil in complete possession of his bodily and mental powers, so that he may be ready to exert them wisely in relation to anything that may present itself. . . . Again, if we look at the intellectual part of the program, we shall find that it is not so meagre after all. The poetry which forms the matter of it holds in solution a whole world of valuable experience and moral example, which it only requires a good instructor to bring out. The poetry of Greece was its religious and ethical lore; Homer and Hesiod were its Bible. In learning this poetry,

therefore, boys were imbibing the very essence of the national life, the inner spirit, of which its history and institutions were but the external embodiment.²

The above sketch of an Athenian schoolboy's day from the age of 7 to 14 gives only the highlights of what transpired during these 7 years, and will have to suffice for our own purposes. Boys whose parents could afford to send them to school for 2 more years continued with advanced work in the fields already undertaken, with increasing emphasis on the physical fitness program and with the addition of number work and the beginnings of the study of grammar. Number work was a most difficult subject because the Greeks had not been able to emerge from a most cumbersome system of calculation. Consequently, there wasn't much that they could learn except to attain a fair degree of facility in using their fingers and the counting frame called the abacus.

The Ephebic Oath

At 18 the young man entered military service for 2 years, but before he was accepted he took the ephebic oath in the presence of assembled citizens. This oath marked the end of his formal schooling and his entrance to manhood. The oath is well worth quoting.

I will not dishonor my sacred arms; I will not desert my fellow soldier, by whose side I shall be set; I will do battle for my religion and my country whether aided or unaided. I will leave my country not less, but greater and more powerful, than she is when committed to me; I will reverently obey the citizens who shall act as judges; I will obey the ordinances which have been established, and which in time to come shall be established, by the national will; and whosoever would destroy or disobey these ordinances, I will not suffer him, but I will do battle for them whether aided or unaided; and I will honor the temples where my fathers worshipped. Of these things Agraulos, Enyalios, Ares, Zeus, Thallo, Auxo, and Hegemone are my witnesses.

Innovations

In the latter part of the fifth century certain innovations in the life and thought of the Athenians modified the highly moral, physi-

² Davidson, Thomas, *The Education of the Greek People*, D. Appleton & Company, Inc., New York, 1894, pp. 65-69.

cal, and practical phases of their schooling. Due to the influence of the philosophers, especially the sophists, an element called dialectic made its way into the teaching of the young men of the city. Another word for dialectic is argumentation. The point is that great importance was attached to talking and arguing about things. Even different schools of thought arose as to how dialectic should be conducted and what ends it should seek. The manifestation of an idea or object, not its commonly accepted substance, became the core of advanced education. When men began to play with ideas and to neglect the practical elements in life that these ideas represented, the political and social disintegration of the Athenians paved the way for their later conquest by the Romans.

Contributions of Greek Education

We must not leave our story of education in Athens until we have made mention of the contributions that its system has made. We find that the goal has been, as it was among primitive tribes, to prepare the boy for his place in society. The physical side of his life was constantly stressed. Until the time of the sophists the knowledge taught was directly concerned with what was expected of him as an Athenian citizen. One of the best definitions of what was expected of an Athenian citizen was given by Isocrates. He said:

First, he is capable of dealing with the ordinary events of life, by possessing a happy sense of fitness and a faculty of usually hitting upon the right course of action. Secondly, his behavior in any society is always correct and proper. If he is thrown with offensive or disagreeable company, he can meet it with easy good temper; and he treats everyone with utmost fairness and gentleness. Thirdly, he always has the mastery over his pleasures, and does not give way unduly under misfortune and pain, but behaves in such cases with manliness and worthily of the nature which has been given to us. Fourthly (the most important point), he is not spoilt nor puffed up nor is his head turned by success, but he continues throughout to behave like a wise man, taking less pleasure in the good things which chance has given him at birth than in the products of his own talents and intelligence. Those whose soul is well tuned to play its part in all these ways, those I call wise and perfect men, and declare to possess all the virtues; those I regard as truly educated.³

³Quoted in K. Freeman, *Schools of Hellas*, Macmillan & Company, Ltd., London, 1907, pp. 192 f.

foundational or initial instruction, which was later to be followed by a more advanced type. Since that which followed was, in Latin, *secundus*, the later stage of education came to be called secondary.

Elementary education during the period now under consideration might be carried on within the family, as had been the custom in earlier days, or it might be handled by the *ludimagister* in a private school conducted by an educated slave or freedman. *Magister* was the word for teacher, and *ludus* the word for school. Other designations were *literator*, the teacher of reading, and *grammatista*, the teacher of grammar, although the latter was associated more with the secondary than the elementary period of instruction. The boy could go to the *ludus* as early as 7 but usually it was from 8 to 10. Here, just as in Greece, he learned to read by syllables and to write on wax tablets. The abacus and the fingers were still the main supports of such calculations as he was taught. We have also the same appointments for the schoolroom, benches for the pupils, a raised seat for the teacher, and tablets or representations of the deities on the walls.

Secondary Education

After four years spent with the *ludimagister* or the *literator* he went to another private school conducted by the *grammaticus*. Here he remained until he was invested with the *toga virilis*. In the school of the *grammaticus* he learned Greek with special emphasis on Homer. In addition, he memorized literary selections in both Greek and Latin, especially poetry and the Laws of the Twelve Tables, and the rules of grammar that governed the construction of both languages.

For a good many boys, this was as far as they went, but those who really expected to make a name for themselves continued on into the third type of school, that of the *rhetor*, or teacher of oratory. This school corresponded to that of the philosophers in Greece, where skill in disputation became the main goal. In the school of the *rhetor* the boy learned to write, declaim, and debate on any and all topics, wise or foolish, that the teacher assigned him. The idea was that, if a boy could learn to argue on any topic, no matter how remote its content might be from the practical affairs of the day, he would receive a training that would of itself equip him to

meet all real emergencies. When we consider some of the topics that modern teachers give their pupils to write and discuss, we find that we haven't advanced very far beyond the practices of the *rhetor*.

Now, why was so much stress put upon oratorical ability? The Roman citizen could be a soldier, a lawyer, hold public office, or become a statesman. The last three of these activities demanded on the part of each an ability to sway the public by means of a verbal appeal. The better capable a man was in the art of public address and the more skillful he was in presenting his arguments so as to disprove those of his adversary, the greater was his chance of winning his case or of winning votes for the cause he was championing. We must remember that there was no newspaper, no radio, no ready manufacture of books to bring information to the general public. Whatever news was relayed to them, whatever speeches of importance were delivered had to be listened to by those who were on hand, the audience. Since so much depended upon the effect to be produced by these speeches, their content, organization, and method of delivery, we have the answer to our question as to why oratory was so important. To tell the truth, it became so essential that it formed the basis for the writing of one of the important works on Roman education that has come down to us, Quintilian's *Institutio Oratoria*.

As time went on during the Empire, schools became more and more formal and were, in some instances, established by municipalities and spread to the provinces. But we must remember that, from the beginning, the boy who enjoyed the advantages of secondary education was, as in Greece, a member of the ruling class.

Contributions of Rome to Secondary Education

What contributions have come down to us from the Roman system of education, that system that we have just described? I think we can say it emphasized a greater distinction among the three types of schools than did the Grecian system, i.e., the elementary, the secondary, and higher. Useful and practical were more appropriate adjectives to characterize it. Stern patriotism and severe discipline were also associated with it. Its emphasis on grammar and memoriter methods of learning persisted for many centuries. And, almost more than any of these, we have inherited the individual and

social importance of "the good man skilled in speaking" (Quintilian). We don't call it oratory today. With us it goes by the name of speech, but it is our old friend, Roman oratory, in a new dress.

EDUCATION IN THE MIDDLE AGES

Our fourth stop on this journey of historical study brings us to that period that goes by the name of the medieval or Middle Ages. We shall not follow the vicissitudes of education as it suffered and endured from the last days of the Empire to the establishment of the hegemony of the Church, but we shall attempt to find out what were the predominating traits of the schools that descended from the Romans to the Christian church of medieval times.

Decadent as the grammar and rhetoric schools of the Roman Empire were, and although divorced by their formalism and artificiality as they became from the everyday affairs and demands of life, they were destined nevertheless to furnish the form for the organization and technique of education during the Middle Ages. Not only did the early leaders in the church, like Gregory of Nazianus, Basil of Caesarea, Chrysostom, and Jerome and many others, receive their early education in pagan schools, but when the Church as an organization began to recognize the need of educating its ministers it found in the traditional practices of the grammar schools a foundation on which to build schools to meet its own needs.⁴

Education in Medieval Times

The so-called Dark and Middle Ages and the period known as the Renaissance form the connecting link between Graeco-Roman education and the first type of secondary school in this country. But they encompass many centuries. It is not possible to treat of all the different turns that changed the course of education, because there is not time for them in an introductory exposition. In order to give you some idea of the evolution that took place during a millennium we shall investigate the monastic or cathedral school, the education of the nobles, the guild and burgher schools, the influence of the Renaissance, and the English prototype of our own Latin grammar school.

⁴I. L. Kandel, *History of Secondary Education*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1930, p. 41.

Influence of the Church

Such learning as survived the onslaught of the barbarians took refuge in the confines of the Church, whose chief purposes were to widen its spiritual and temporal influence over its people, to emphasize the sad state of affairs in this world, and to prepare for the next. Consequently, its first obligation was to train men for the priesthood, and the place to do this was, of course, in the monasteries and, later, in the cathedral schools. The monks and priests had to read and write, so that was the first thing they were taught. Since, in so many instances, there weren't many books, the boys were set to copying manuscripts, an activity that advanced into an art, as adeptness and skill in reproduction increased under the guidance of those who developed an interest in this phase. The content of what was read and copied dealt with the religious observances of the Church and the writings of the early Church fathers. Latin was the language of the Church, so Latin was the medium of instruction. Dictation and memory work were the ordinary methods of teaching.

As the early abhorrence of all things "pagan" gradually wore off with the passage of time, and since the boys who were selected to go to these monastic and cathedral schools had to be of a keen, intellectual type, there wasn't sufficient in the ordinary content to challenge them. In fact, in some places the detested Roman authors had never been entirely supplanted. So they crept back and finally were accepted on a par with the Church writers. There then developed the seven liberal arts, which were divided into the trivium, grammar, rhetoric, and dialectic (it ought to be easy to remember these, because just a little analysis will show how closely related they are to each other), and the quadrivium, largely mathematical. At first, only grammar and rhetoric received any attention, but the rise of universities in the twelfth century served to accentuate dialectic and the quadrivium. Then it wasn't long until the same formalism that tainted the philosophical schools of Greece and the rhetorical schools of Rome beset the monastic and cathedral schools, and theology degenerated into mere verbal quibbling. Girls and women were being taught to read and write, too. That's rather strange, isn't it, inasmuch as we haven't heard much so far about women going to school? But they were a special group, those who

were preparing to be nuns in nunneries or convents, just as the monks and priests were educated in the monastic and cathedral schools. Since the mass and the duties, or offices, of the Church were equally a part of their life, they would have a preparation similar to that of the men.

But the world was also passing along outside the cloistered walls of monastery and convent. In fact, it had gone so far as to develop the feudal system, where lord and peasant, banded together for mutual protection and service, evolved into noble and serf. The serfs became the same as slaves and received no consideration as meriting anything in the way of schooling. The nobles had their own circle, which was above that of the serfs. We can go back to Athens in all her glory to find a parallel. The education of the young noble began in his teens when he became a page and, as such, waited upon his lord and lady, learning from them the rules of courtesy and behavior that became crystallized in the age of chivalry. He was then promoted to be a squire. This time his duties took him afield, where he served as his lord's attendant when he jousted in tournaments or fought in actual battles. After serving this military apprenticeship, under appropriate religious rites, he was dubbed sir knight at the age of twenty-one.

Effects of the Crusades

The Crusades and the desire for expansion that opened up new trade routes to the East affected continental education in two ways. It was inevitable that learning should be quickened. New ideas, new books (the old Greek and Latin authors), new ways of living, new attitudes toward life were introduced so imperceptibly that there came to pass what we call the Renaissance. Then, too, the very nature of the growth of trade gave rise to the burgher class and the guilds, both of which were responsible for new types of schools. The guilds developed the apprentice system, which brought into existence guild schools for the training of apprentices. Because of increase in trade and in the numbers of those who were engaged in it, it became necessary to establish secular schools (mind you, this is a real innovation) in which reading, writing, and calculation were taught so as to prepare the boys for navigation or the counting house. These schools were called burgher schools and led to the

first steps in the establishment of publicly controlled secondary schools. One thing that must be mentioned in connection with these schools is the gradual substitution of the Arabic system of notation and reckoning, whose use made arithmetic so much easier for keeping accounts. That may be another reason for the growth in interest of the quadrivium, the mathematical side of the seven liberal arts, in the monastic and cathedral schools after the twelfth century.

The period of the Renaissance is especially noteworthy for the rise and power of the universities. But these schools were attended by advanced students, not secondary, who were planning to prepare for law or medicine. They are not our particular concern, except as they do enter the picture of education in general.

What we now want to do is to see how secondary education of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries sowed the seeds for our own American system. So far, we have seen what happened during the middle ages. Education for the priesthood was a literary and dialectic education carried on in the monastery or in a school connected with the cathedral. Education for the noble consisted in activities whose accomplishment did not depend upon book learning. And then there were the guild and burgher schools that were secular in nature, both as to content and control. After a while the guild schools were merged with or absorbed by the burgher schools.

EDUCATION IN SIXTEENTH CENTURY ENGLAND

Schools on the continent took a certain direction which resulted in the gradual emergence of the *gymnasial* type of school in Germany and *lycée* type in France, types that influenced all the other countries. But the one with which we are directly concerned is England, because it was from her that came the determining factors that shaped our own secondary schools.

Schools in medieval England were much like those on the continent, monastic, cathedral, guild, and burgher schools, but those that achieved greatest prominence were the ones of the first two types. The Protestant Reformation came officially to England when Henry VIII prevailed upon Parliament to establish the Anglican Church. When he despoiled the monasteries and cathedrals he also destroyed many of their schools. But, when sanity was restored under the later Tudors, many schools were reestablished. Only this

time they were largely under the governance of lay groups, although the Anglican Church had religious control over them.

In spirit they were supposed to cater to poor as well as rich, but, because of the nature of the curriculum and the destinies of the boys, the only ones who finally attended were the sons of the peerage and the well-to-do. These boys planned to enter the ministry or to assume prominent posts in civil and political life. The curriculum was almost entirely Latin and Greek, with attention given to the basic tenets of the Church. But the reasons for the study of these two languages had diverged noticeably from the humanism of the Renaissance. Somewhere along the line the schools had forgotten the joy of discovery and interpretation that welcomed in the rebirth of Latin and Greek authors. Grammar as a science whose study enabled a boy to argue and reason well had given place to its study for its own sake. It had become an end in itself with special textbooks and all sorts of rhyming, mnemonic devices contrived for its memorized mastery, no matter if there was any sense to it or not. The boy didn't have to understand one whit why he was doing what he was compelled to do. He had to master the grammar before he could go on with the reading of any literature. Consequently, discipline was very severe, and only those of superior intellect could survive the intellectual and physical ordeal.

The Great Public Schools

The great "public" schools of which we hear so much, and which are the oldest secondary schools in England, owe their name to the fact that, once upon a time, they actually were public in that they were free schools for the poor and tuition schools for those who could pay. They became so popular and the second group so numerous that there was soon no place for those who could not afford to pay, and so they lost their public character while retaining the name.

Such were the schools that trained the men who came to America for one reason or another. It was to be expected that, when they were faced with the necessity of establishing their own schools, they would follow in the footsteps of their own educational experiences.

SUMMARY

We have seen how secondary education has persisted from its beginnings in primitive society to the endowed schools of England and the state schools of Germany as something that has been set aside for the more favored sons of the dominant social and political groups. It has always started out to be preparation for the duties of citizenship and has always degenerated into formalism, where the contents of the curriculum have become the crux of educational effort rather than the ends that the curriculum is supposed to serve. Generally, the teaching has been in the hands of the priest class, or, if not exactly that, dominated and controlled by the priestcraft. The lower classes, the unfortunates, one might say, were not the recipients of any educational favors until the Renaissance and the Protestant Reformation. Then elementary schools were founded by the Protestant Churches or by philanthropic individuals in order to teach boys and girls to read and write so that they might follow the church services. Girls have been relegated largely to their own families where the mother taught them all they needed to know. In Tudor England, however, girls in the families of nobles or wealthy were frequently tutored in the linguistic accomplishments of their brothers. And finally, secondary education has become more and more an intermediate stage on the way to citizenship. Its goal has become the preparation of boys for higher education.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. Learn more about the Greek, Roman, and Arabic systems of calculation to show why the Greeks and Romans were held back in mathematics.
2. Trace the importance and content of physical exercise in the training of youth from primitive times to today.
3. Show how traditions have as firm a hold upon us today as they did in Greek and Roman times.
4. Compare the position of women in Greek and Roman society.
5. Compare the ephebic oath with the oaths taken today by individuals who become citizens or members of patriotic groups.
6. What words of Greek and Latin origin are common in modern educational parlance?

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The Backgrounds of Secondary Education in America

IN THE early part of the seventeenth century varying types of groups were being attracted to migrate from their mother country, England, to the lands beyond the sea in order to establish new homes. Conflicting impulses urged them on. Some came for purposes of trade, some for adventure, some to escape the humdrum of everyday life, some for religious freedom, some to live down unsavory pasts, and others as representatives of his or her majesty's government. But, whoever they were and whatever their lot, there was one thing that they could not leave behind them and that was their heritage of being English men and women. They spoke the language and practiced the mores of their childhood, youth, and adulthood. When they fashioned their new abodes, when they instituted rules of law and order, when they established their places of worship, when they followed the maxim, "train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it," they looked to the mother country for guidance. There would be, of course, modifications introduced, because imitation could not be carried out in all respects. But, in the main, the models found reasonable facsimiles. It is also obvious that, as time grew apace and generation succeeded generation, greater and greater differences would creep into the general scheme of things until something new had been created.

That is exactly what has happened to the American school system. Whatever we see around us today is something that had its beginnings in the colonies and has developed hand in hand with the evo-

before it is required to maintain such a school. Knowing, as we do, the size of family in colonial New England, a conservative estimate of fifty householders would be in the neighborhood of four to five hundred persons, adults and children.

Then, when this population is doubled, a second type of school is ordered, one that will prepare boys for the university. This second school was not built upon the first. Oh, no! It was an independent institution. There was no expectation on the part of the citizens that the boy whose parents planned to send him to the university would first attend the reading and writing school. It is true that he was supposed to know how to read and write before he came to the grammar school, but these accomplishments were attained in his own home or at the home of a dame who made a few pennies out of teaching youngsters who resorted to her to learn to read and sometimes to write. Hence the name, dame school. There was an absolute parallelism between the reading and writing and the grammar schools, a parallelism that was fated to exercise tremendous influence over the later development of the elementary school. Those who attended the reading and writing school were sent there in order to fulfill the provisions contained in the first paragraph of the 1647 law, and that was to preserve a literate electorate who might be able to read the Bible sufficiently well so that they could check on the orthodoxy of their preachers.

Then there was the question of the preachers themselves. They were the chosen ones; consequently, the boys who were to receive the advantages of going to the grammar school were the boys who would later attend the university, upon the completion of whose course they would be qualified to teach men "the true sense and meaning of the original." This thought is found in a statement in *New England's First Fruits*:

After God had carried us safe to New England, and we had builded our houses, provided necessities for our livelihood, reared convenient places for God's worship, and settled the civil government, one of the next things we longed for and looked after was to advance learning and perpetuate it to posterity, dreading to leave an illiterate ministry to the churches, when our present ministers shall lie in the dust.¹

¹ *New England's First Fruits*, London, 1643, Mass. Hist. Bull., 1792, vol. 1, p. 242. The spelling and punctuation have been modernized.

The General Court of Massachusetts took action in 1636 to establish such a college. In 1638 it was formally opened at Cambridge under the name Harvard College, which has served state and commonwealth for over three centuries.

The Boston Latin Grammar School, was, as we have said, the forerunner and near contemporary of many other like institutions that sprang up throughout the inhabited places of New England. So an analysis of this particular school will give us a picture that will represent all the others. We know, now, that its purpose was to select and educate boys of promise who would later be transferred to Harvard College and prepare for the ministry. The Old Testament, rather than the New, shaped the thinking and attitudes of the Puritan fathers. The story of Hannah, who dedicated her first-born, Samuel, to the service of the Lord, furnished the example for Puritan parents. It was a great honor to have a son of the family become a minister, because that position, as we have found, was at least equal in importance to that of those in public office. An analogous situation is found among the inhabitants of those European countries and their descendants in this country, for whom the Church is the most potent factor in their lives. For one of their boys to become a priest is the highest distinction that can come to them. Franklin in his *Autobiography* tells of the struggles of his family to keep him in the grammar school.

I was put to the grammar school at eight years of age; my father intending to devote me, as the tithe of his sons, to the service of the Church. . . . I continued, however, at the grammar school rather less than a year, though in that time I had risen gradually from the middle of the class that year to be at the head of the same class, and was removed into the next class, whence I was to be placed in the third at the end of the year.

But my father . . . was unable without inconvenience, to support the expense of a college education. Considering, moreover . . . the little encouragement that line of life afforded to those educated for it, he gave up his first intentions, took me from the grammar school, and sent me to a school for writing and arithmetic. . . . At ten years old I was taken to help my father in his business.²

² Benjamin Franklin, *Autobiography*, Educational Publishing Company, New York, 1836, pp. 12, 13.

Control of the Grammar School

The control of the school was in the hands of the town meeting, although the clergy exercised close supervision over the teacher and what he taught. A quotation from a couple of the town records of Hartford, Connecticut, will show somewhat the nature of this control. For April, 1643, we find: "At a general town meeting . . . it was ordered that Mr. Andrews should teach the children in the school one year next ensuing from the 25th of March, 1643, and that he shall have for his pains 16 pounds." On February 1, 1648, the records say: "It was agreed and consented to by the town that forty pounds shall be paid in the way of a rate to the townsmen for the time being for carrying on the said work, which yet being conceived to fall much short of attaining the end in building such a house as may be suitable for the said employment." Because of such duties, the town soon came to appoint a special committee to have control over the affairs of the school and to report to the town meeting. These school committees were the forerunners of today's boards of education.

The Curriculum

The curriculum was the same as that which we found in England, Latin, Greek, and religion. The boys were supposed to know how to read and write when they entered, but it happened all too often that such was not the case. There is an instance on record where the master complained bitterly because, by having to teach the younger to read and write, he was prevented from teaching Virgil and Homer to the older boys. What was expected from the boys may be gathered from the 1642 entrance requirements to Harvard. "When any scholar is able to read Tully (Cicero) or such like classical author extempore, and make and speake true Latin in verse and prose, *suo* (*ut aiunt*) *Marte*, and decline perfectly the paradigm of nounes and verbes in ye Greeke tongue, then may hee bee admitted to ye college, nor shall any claime admission before such qualifications."²

The school had only a teacher's desk, benches, and continuous

² Translation of Latin version of Statutes, Laws, etc. of Harvard College.

tables around the walls. Memoriter work and corporal punishment were the common methods of instruction. There surely were no after memories of pleasant days spent in school to be brought to the mind of any who had ever attended. Cruel forms of punishment were applied also in the reading and writing school.

Girls as well as boys were taught in the latter school, but only boys went to the grammar school. This rule was not always followed, however, because some towns allowed girls to have lessons in the school after the boys had gone, while some parents employed tutors for their girls. But, in general, we can say that the secondary education for girls was most exceptional and that, after obtaining a smattering of reading and sometimes writing, the major share of their education was learned at home from their mothers.

Financing the Grammar School

The grammar school was financed through various means. The most common was by the tuition paid by the boy's parents. The Hartford records of April, 1643, throw some light on this subject.

The townsmen shall go and inquire who will engage themselves to send their children, and all that do shall pay for one quarter at the least and for more, if they do send them, after the proportion of twenty shillings the year, and if they go any weeks more than an even quarter they shall pay six pence per week. And if any would send their children and are not able to pay for their teaching, they shall give notice of it to the townsmen and they shall pay it at the town's charges.*

The last sentence tells us of the second method of support. It seems obvious from the wording that a boy who showed promise was not kept out of the school for inability to meet the tuition charges. We see here the creeping in of public financial support of secondary education, a practice that made secondary education practically free in some communities.

There were two other sources of income for the school. Individuals who were especially interested in it did the same thing that they do today. In some instances they gave the land on which the school was built, or other property, with instructions that the in-

* Spelling and punctuation modernized.

come from its rents was to be applied to the school's expenses or that the schoolmaster might cultivate it as part of his living. In others, they left money in the form of endowments. The most outstanding contribution of this sort was that of Governor Edward Hopkins, whose bequests were of material assistance to the grammar schools of Hadley, Massachusetts, and of Hartford and New Haven in Connecticut. In Hartford this money is now represented by the Hopkins chair in Latin. The incumbent is called the Hartford Grammar School Master.

Student Life

Student life in the grammar school was a dull affair. Boys had to memorize all the rules of grammar and were mercilessly flogged if they failed to recite them perfectly. The masters tried to get the boys to talk in Latin, at least while on the school grounds. So it was a happy time for them when they got out of earshot of the teacher. The school day was a long one, from seven to five in spring and summer, and from eight to four in autumn and winter. Part of Monday was given over to a review and discussion of Sunday's sermon. All recreational activities, as we think of them, were engaged in, whenever home chores permitted, entirely away from school premises. The rigorous and restrictive discipline exacted from the boys found its outlet in some of the pranks in which they indulged.

Teachers of the Grammar School

The teachers were ministers, men who were studying to be ministers, or men who had abandoned the idea of completing their clerical course. It is evident from what has already been said that it was essential that, even though they were appointed by the town meeting, they meet the approval of the local minister, who catechized them on their orthodoxy. Some of them, like John Lovell and Ezekiel Cheever, made teaching their life work and achieved a well-merited renown. Others taught only as a temporary expedient and did not put forth the necessary effort to do a good job. The teachers in the grammar school, however, were, as a group, far superior to those engaged to teach in the district, or reading and writing, schools.

The Decline of the Grammar School

The Latin grammar school had its day and then passed on. Although preaching was a most honorable pursuit, the tenure of a preacher was so long that it wasn't possible to graduate as many ministers as there were towns, for the very reason that towns did not grow so fast as the crop of ministers turned out. True, many of these went into teaching, but still, when pulpits had been filled, there was an implied tenure that did not anticipate many vacancies. In some of the smaller populated places, those that did just come under the minimum of 100 householders, as set by the Law of 1647, there were not enough boys desiring to go to the grammar school to make it financially practicable for the town to establish such a school. These few boys went to a school in some other town, their own being willing to pay the five pounds fine as a cheap way out of the dilemma. Then, as time went on, a spirit of enforced tolerance invaded the colony because of the necessity of doing business with those of opposite religious convictions. Close adherence to the original spirit of utter intolerance that motivated the early settlers was not to stand long in the way of the lure of added profits. Two shillings were better than one shilling. So, step by step, the bars were let down and good traders of other faiths were admitted to the land of tabu. This meant that the power of the clergy had to diminish, because the ministers could no longer thunder and fulminate against dissenters. And, as their powers over their charges waned, so did their position as being one of the most enviable in the community decline in importance. The corollary was that not so many families were tempted to send their boys to grammar school. They preferred to have them go into business or navigation, because those were the paths that were leading to improved economic and social status. And out of this situation there emerged an affluent middle class whose members were not hampered by the traditions of the fathers. They themselves had not gone to grammar school, and, certainly, they could see no earthly reason for sending their sons to one.

Aside from the above-mentioned economic and social factors another evolution was taking place. Latin as a medium for communication was subsiding. In the eighteenth century it was giving way to French as the language of international exchange and diplomacy.

Accordingly, it could not claim for itself the prerogative of preparing the young man for service to the state as well as to the church. This was another reason for not attending grammar school.

Last of the causes for the decline of the grammar school in the eighteenth century was the move westward in the New England colonies into the wilderness and the establishment there of sparsely peopled settlements. These people had to spend all their time fighting the elements and the Indians. They had no leisure moments to devote to any educational improvements other than those that were absolutely necessary. Whenever, then, they felt the need of any kind of formal schooling, they favored the district reading and writing school.

The Contributions of the Grammar School

But before we launch into the story of the academy, we must not overlook the contributions made by the grammar school to our educational system. We call them contributions, a word that implies something beneficial. Probably it would be better to say that we shall list the ways in which the grammar school influenced subsequent developments. These were: the status of Latin, the emphasis on education for boys, the exclusive features of secondary education, preparation for college, public control of secondary education, compulsory schools, and the parallelism of the reading and writing school and the grammar school. Latin has persisted in being an important part of the curriculum. After the first grammar school was founded more than a century elapsed before girls were admitted on an equal footing. There are still many people who sincerely believe that secondary education should be reserved only for the few, and that these few should have to pay for the privilege. College preparation has long been one of the dominant aims of our secondary schools, even though, in many schools, there are very few pupils who go to college.

This influence of the Latin grammar school becomes especially noted in the latter half of its century of dominance when we find that some boys are beginning to go to college not to become preachers or for statecraft, but just to go, as if that were the thing to do. We shall find that the academy accentuated this idea. One of the major contributions has been the idea of secular control, manage-

ment, and finance of our school system. Even more important was the Law of 1647 that set the pattern, at least, for future compulsory education. It was, however, compulsory in only one sense, and that was the establishment of schools. Towns of a certain size were required to provide for grammar schools, but, and this is the point, boys themselves were not compelled to attend. Individual attendance was a personal matter and remained so for over two centuries. Parallelism between colonial elementary and secondary education provided a stumbling block to the better articulation of these two systems, a condition from which we are still suffering.

After a century of service, the grammar school was disappearing entirely in some communities, it was in a very spent condition in most others, and it carried on only in the larger centers. The time was ripe for it to improve from within or to be supplanted by another kind of school. It would not suffer the first, so the academy stepped in to take its place.

THE ACADEMY

The reasons already presented for the downfall of the grammar school were, naturally, the same as those that led to the creation of a very new type of secondary school. Additional factors, which have not been mentioned, were the setting of the stage for the struggle with England and a shorter cut to learning certain occupations other than by the apprenticeship method. The middle of the eighteenth century witnessed a decrease in public interest in the "dead language" type of preparatory school. It, the school, was not concerned with matters of public interest; but the public was. It is now that we note a phenomenon that we shall find repeated many, many times. And it is this: Whenever the public at large loses interest in the conduct of an activity that is concerned with its members, the activity being one that tends to promote the welfare of these members, private philanthropy steps in to nurture the activity until society can see its way to shouldering the responsibility once more. This has been especially true of schools and hospitals. Well, that is what happened in the eighteenth century. Individuals, and groups activated by individuals, began to see the necessity for providing some kind of opportunity for boys of ability to prepare for the more likely opportunities they would encounter in life. One of these individuals

was Benjamin Franklin. Although there were others who did their share, we are selecting Franklin as our illustration for two reasons. His academy was one of the earliest, if not the earliest, while he himself was one of the most prominent men of his times.

Franklin's Academy

In chapter 9 of the *Autobiography* he tells us:

Peace being concluded . . . I turned my thoughts again to the affair of establishing an academy. The first step I took was to associate in the design a number of active friends . . . ; the next was to write and publish a pamphlet; entitled, *Proposals relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania*. This I distributed among the principal inhabitants gratis; and as soon as I could suppose their minds a little prepared by the perusal of it, I set on foot a subscription for opening and supporting an academy.

The subscribers . . . chose out of their number twenty-four trustees and appointed Mr. Francis . . . and myself to draw up constitutions for the government of the academy; which being done and signed, a house was hired, masters engaged, and the school opened; I think in the same year, 1749.

The term "academy," which Franklin used, goes back to the academy of Plato's time, but its modern use is one that is strictly British. As far back as 1572 Sir Humphrey Gilbert set forth his ideas for "the erection of an academy in London for education of Her Majesty's wards and others the youth of nobility and gentlemen."⁵ The tendency is to give credit to Defoe's use of the term in his *Essay on Projects* for Franklin's application of it. Whatever his source, that was the name he gave to his proposed institution, and the name which became the popular one.

We do find mention of transitional schools run privately by individuals, wherein mathematics and modern foreign languages were taught,⁶ but these schools were short-lived, probably because they had no organized backing. It is this support which Franklin endeavored to win over through his *Proposals*. He earnestly desired a

⁵ W. H. Woodward, *Studies in Education During the Age of the Renaissance*, Cambridge University Press, London, 1906, pp. 298, 303.

⁶ I. L. Kandel, *History of Secondary Education*, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1930, pp. 168-170.

very practical type of school, but, in order to retain the support of his subscribers and trustees, he had to compromise. Said he, "It would be well if they could be taught everything that is useful and *everything that is ornamental. But art is long, and their time is short.* It is therefore proposed that they learn those things that are likely to be most useful and most ornamental; regard being had to the several professions for which they are intended."

Franklin's idea was to emphasize the teaching of English and practical subjects, but he found it difficult to get subscribers to his scheme if he did not include the ancient languages. The argument was that some boys who would attend might want to go to college. They would be denied this opportunity if they could not offer Latin and Greek for entrance, for those subjects were what the colleges were still posing as entrance hurdles. The outcome was that Franklin had to include a Latin school with his English and mathematics schools. In forty years, however, the tradition of Latin had overcome the resistance of the newcomer, English, to such an extent that Franklin was forced to demur at the state of affairs. In 1789 he wrote his observations relative to the intentions of the Original Founders of the Academy in Philadelphia and said that "the latinists were combined to decry the English school as useless. It was without example, they said, as indeed they still say, that a school for the teaching of the vulgar tongue, and the sciences in that tongue, was ever joined with a college, and that the Latin masters were fully competent to teach the English." One of the reasons for his dissatisfaction was caused by the fact that, by this time, his academy had become a college.

But other individuals and groups were playing with the idea of a special school for youths. Since the source of the interest was private, the schools were private and could be set up wherever private interests so willed. In many instances a wealthy man created a trust fund or provided an endowment, built a school, selected his board of trustees, and named the school after himself. In others, these schools were begun as purely commercial ventures and lived or died according to the luck they had in enticing students to come. A third group was that of the different religious denominations, who found in the academy a means of perpetuating the tenets of their own doctrines and a source of future ministers of their own gospel.

Control of the Academy

Just as the grammar school was the characteristic secondary institution for a century, so was the academy in the ascendancy for the next 100 years; in fact, we might say for 150 years, because the public high school really didn't amount to much until the beginning of the twentieth century. The academy was controlled by a board of trustees, appointed by their own number or by the church, if it was a church school. The trustees set up the rules and regulations governing the school, hired the master and teachers, and determined the subjects to be taught. Many of the schools were boarding schools, so that income was derived from fees for board and room as well as from tuition charges.

Subject Offerings of the Academy

The curriculum was vastly different from the restricted courses taught in the grammar school. Some idea of what was taught in the early days may be gained from the constitution of the Phillips Andover Academy. We read that it was

to lay the foundation of a public free school or Academy for the purposes of instructing youth, not only in English and Latin Grammar, Writing, Arithmetic, and those Sciences wherein they are commonly taught; but more especially to learn them the Great End and Real Business of Living . . . it is again declared that the *first and principal* object of the Institution is the promotion of True Piety and Virtue; the *second*, instruction in the English, Latin and Greek Languages, together with Writing, Arithmetic, Music, and the Art of Speaking, the *third*, practical Geometry, Logic, and Geography; and the *fourth*, such liberal Arts and Sciences or Languages, as opportunity and ability may hereafter admit, and as the Trustees shall direct.

Since there were no antecedents or traditions to stand in the way of originality and individuality, the academy took on various forms to suit the conveniences and demands of its students. So we find that the curricular offerings were shaped accordingly. Of course, some academies began to gravitate in the direction of similarity, because the boys who attended planned to go to college. Even at that, each school managed to be a little different. Since, then, restrictions were few, if any, we can expect to find a great variety of subjects taught

Some idea of the wide range may be gathered from an analysis of the offerings in New York in 1837:

- arithmetic, algebra, architecture, astronomy, botany, bookkeeping, Biblical antiquities, biography, chemistry, composition, conic sections, constitution of the United States, constitution of New York, elements of criticism, declamation, drawing, dialing, English grammar, evidences of Christianity, embroidery, civil engineering, extemporaneous speaking, French, geography, physical geography, geology, plane geometry, analytic geometry, Greek, Grecian antiquities, German, general history, history of the United States, history of New York, Hebrew, Italian, Latin, law (constitutional, select revised statutes, criminal, mercantile, Blackstone's *Commentaries*), logic, leveling, logarithms, vocal music, instrumental music, mapping, mensuration, mineralogy, mythology, natural history, navigation, nautical astronomy, natural theology, orthography, natural philosophy, moral philosophy, intellectual philosophy, penmanship, political economy, painting, perspective, physiology, English pronunciation, reading, rhetoric, Roman antiquities, stenography, statistics, surveying, Spanish, trigonometry, technology, principles of teaching.⁷

Financing the Academy

The schools were financed by various means. We have mentioned tuition and fees for board and room. The financial endowment of the founder brought in a certain amount of income. In some communities financial assistance came from the local community. They had been educated to this idea when they helped pay for the grammar school out of the town levy. It was an easy step to continue to do the same thing for the academy, especially since the town was anxious to have the academy located in its environs. We have an analogous situation today where the local chamber of commerce will give financial assistance to a business concern if it will locate itself in the town. In New York State the legislature provided funds for the partial support of its academies, because these schools helped train the teachers for the district or rural schools.

Introduction of Secondary Education for Girls

One of the most novel aspects of the academy was the inclusion of girls within its walls. In our discussion of the grammar school we

⁷ Paul Monroe, *Principles of Secondary Education*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1912, p. 58.

noted that there were occasions when girls were given the opportunity to learn what their brothers were studying, but we found scant evidence of any common effort along this line. However, the seeds that had been planted began to grow to recognizable proportions, so that, when the academy appeared on the scene, the time was ripe for giving serious consideration to formal education for girls. It found itself in several manifestations. There were separate schools for girls, one type imitating what was done in the boys' schools, the other offering training peculiarly concerned with the young lady's prospective place in society as a mother and hostess. The so-called finishing school was the outgrowth of this type of academy. Monroe quotes from the *Virginia Gazette* of March 5, 1772, the offerings of one such academy:

Petit Point in Flowers, Fruit, Landscapes and Sculpture, Nun's Work, Embroidery in Silk, Gold, Silver, Pearls, or embossed, shading of all kinds, in the Various Works in Vogue, Dresden Point Work, Lace Ditto, Catgut in different Modes, flourishing Muslin, after the Newest Taste, and most elegant Pattern Waxwork in figure, fruit, or flowers, Shell Ditto, or grotesque, Painting in Water Colours, and Mezzotinto; also the Art of taking Foliage, with several Embellishments necessary for the Amusement of Persons of Fortune who have Taste.*

Other ways in which the academies provided education for girls was to admit them to those which were attended by the boys. In some, the girls were taught by the same teachers but in separate classes; in others they were taught in the same classes as the boys. Here we have the real beginnings of coeducation on the secondary level.

Teachers

The teachers in the academies did not have the religious stamp of those who taught in the grammar schools except in the case of denominational academies. Here, in most cases, the headmaster was a clergyman, but this was not necessarily true of his teachers.

Those who taught were quite often well-educated men, but that wasn't always true. Since the success of the school depended somewhat on the number of students, it was not always possible for the

* Paul Monroe, *Cyclopedia of Education*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1912, Vol. 2, p. 120.

teachers to exercise the harsh disciplinary methods that were characteristic of the grammar school. They had to win their pupils more with kindness, as it were, and so they were more humane. They had to be, if they wanted to keep their jobs.

Student Life

As for the students, they were a variable lot. They were expected to be able to read and write when they came. These achievements they may have got in the district school or at home. This means that they were older than those who had gone to the grammar school. Since they had to pay for their schooling they were quite serious about the business of education, but some new provisions for their welfare had to be made, especially in those academies that were boarding schools. "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy." Students couldn't be expected to study all the time, so something had to be done for their leisure time. The boys invented games or modified old ones to suit their purposes. Here we have the beginnings of future athletic programs, because schools would naturally want to compete with each other in friendly rivalry. Then, too, on the intellectual side we have the organization of literary societies, which wielded such an influence in the nineteenth century. They were an outgrowth of the attention paid to declamation, rhetoric, and debate in the regular school curriculum. Some programs of these literary societies were held as open meetings and so furnished "cultural" entertainment to the school and to the townspeople. The climax of this activity came at commencement time when the program consisted of orations, essays, and music given by members of the graduating class.

Changed Character of the Academy

With the passage of time those who attended academies tended to come more and more from the upper and the more wealthy middle class. For this reason, the boys who went to the academy of the nineteenth century were those whose parents could also afford to send them to college. We have said that one outstanding characteristic of the academy was its facile adaptability of the curriculum to the needs of its students. If the trend on the part of these students was toward college, then the nature of the subject offerings would

be college preparatory. So the academy became just that type of school, and the original purpose of preparing boys for the practical duties of life became submerged and disappeared. You see, the possibilities that Franklin and others had in mind dealt with four, and later five vocational opportunities. Maritime inducements offered boys a chance to "sail the seven seas" and to engage in foreign trade, commercial houses in the large seaboard cities presented chances to engage in business, the country to the west beckoned young men into the pursuit of surveying, to those displaying oratorical ability there was opened the path to public office, and last, some could go into teaching. Not one of the first four occupations really depended upon going to college to make good on the job. And it was these groups who were being steadily and gradually pushed to one side in favor of those college-bound.

Some idea of the trend may be observed in the 1818 report of the offerings of Phillips Exeter Academy.

CLASSICAL DEPARTMENT

First Year: Adam's Latin Grammar; Liber Primus, or a similar work; Viri Romani, or Caesar's Commentaries, Latin Prosody; Exercises in reading and making Latin; Ancient and Modern Geography; Virgil; Arithmetic.

Second Year: Virgil; Arithmetic; Exercises in reading and making Latin continued; Valpey's Greek Grammar; Roman History; Cicero's Select Orations; Delectus, Dalzel's Collectanea Graeca Minora; Greek Testament; English Grammar and Declamation.

Third Year: The same Latin and Greek authors, in revision; English Grammar and Declamation, continued; Sallust; Algebra; Exercise in Latin and English translations; and Composition.

Fourth Year: Collectanea Graeca Majora; Q. Horatius Flaccus; Titus Livius; Parts of Terence's Comedies; Excerpta Latina, or such Latin and Greek authors as may best comport with the student's future destination; Algebra; Geometry; Elements of Ancient History; Adam's Roman Antiquities.

ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

(For admission into this Department the candidate must be at least twelve years of age, and he must have been well instructed in Reading and Spelling; familiarly acquainted with Arithmetic, through simple Proportion with the exception of Fractions, know

Murray's *English Grammar* through Syntax, and must be able to parse simple English sentences.)

First Year: English Grammar, including exercises in Reading, Parsing, and Analyzing, in the correction of bad English; Punctuation and Prosody; Arithmetic; Geography; and Algebra, through Simple Equations.

Second Year: English Grammar, continued; Geometry; Plane Trigonometry, and its application to heights and distances; Mensuration of Sup. and Sol.; Elements of Ancient History; Logic, Rhetoric; English Composition; Declamation, and exercises of the Forensic kind.

Third Year: Surveying; Navigation; Elements of Chemistry and Natural Philosophy, with experiments; Elements of Modern History, particularly of the United States; Moral and Political Philosophy; English Composition, Forensics, and Declamation.*

Aside from the differing content of the two departments, it is interesting to note the abbreviated term of the English department, three years, as contrasted with the four of the classical. But, in the four-year organization, we see the forerunner of our own four-year high school and the placement of many courses, such as, for example, beginning Latin in the first year and beginning Greek in the second year. Note, also, the absence of any science and modern history in the classical department. That, again, was another influence that held sway over the college preparatory course even into the twentieth century. Of course, the academy was indebted to the grammar school for this particular course of study.

Waning Influence of the Academy

The academy came into existence at a time when public interest in secondary education was at a low ebb. It served its purpose for a century and a half and then gave way to a third type of school. It did not disappear as did the grammar school, because inherent in it were means of satisfying those who believed that secondary education was an exclusive affair, and those who were convinced that denominational religion should have a place in the education of adolescents. So we find the academies particularly strong today in the eastern and southern states. Interestingly enough, these two

* Alexander Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1918, p. 179.

main reasons for its continuance were the chief forces that gradually eliminated the academy as a potent force in American education. Private schools were considered undemocratic. More of this later. Another reason for the decrease in popularity of the academy was its inner circle type of control. Since the trustees could appoint successors to their own members there grew up a most natural tendency to continue in the traditional ways of the past rather than to keep adjusting to current changes in society. That's why we found the college preparatory work the predominant one in the later nineteenth century. Then it cost money to go to such a school, many of which were located by their founders without regard to geographical accessibility. Day schools in the larger cities did not suffer from this particular disadvantage, but they did let themselves fall under the college preparatory odium.

Contributions of the Academy

Before we leave our discussion of the academy we must point out what it did for the cause of secondary education, as we did in the case of the Latin grammar school. Inglis has summarized these so well that we shall quote what he said:

On the credit side of its account may be placed at least four important contributions which secondary education in America received from the Academy movement: (1) it introduced, or at least met, the conception that secondary education should be provided for the large number of boys and girls not preparing to enter college; (2) it enriched and extended the course of study; (3) it introduced and developed secondary education for girls; (4) it popularized if not democratized secondary education in America and prepared the public mind for universal secondary education which was to be attempted later through the public high school. To these four contributions of the academy we may add another item in the fact that private initiative founded and fostered secondary education at a period when legislatures and local authorities failed to provide an institution adequate to meet the needs of society. For a period of more than three-quarters of a century the academy was the dominant form of secondary education in the country, during a large part of that time it was the only form of secondary education in many regions, and it exerted an influence on secondary education in the United States which lasted throughout the nineteenth century in spite of the rapid growth of the

struggle. And the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were the ones to contemplate the victory.

The Emergence of the Public High School

And so, we find a new spirit of hope that would not be denied. Although the founding fathers had considered property rights a basis for the exercise of the right of suffrage, the Fourteenth Amendment, adopted in 1868, abolished this distinction and put all male citizens on an equal basis. Even so, all freemen were supposed to be equal before the law. They were the ones who challenged the "divine right of kings" idea and objected to the granting of special privileges to some because of the accident of birth. Here, then, we have one of the forces that paved the way for a new type of secondary school.

Another concomitant force came out of the labor movement. The Industrial Revolution had shifted production from hand labor to the machine. The factory system came into being and more men were employed. The employees resolved themselves into organizations whose purpose was to bargain for just wages and living conditions. These men were not yet of the middle class, but, by means of thrift and perseverance, they would be of that group ere long. They began to feel the necessity of doing something for their own boys and girls, something that would place them on a higher rung of the social and economic ladder. With the laudable ambitions of most solicitous parents they wanted their youngsters to do better than they themselves had done. As they looked about them, they saw that those who were sitting in the seats they wished to occupy had had the advantages of attending academies. So they wanted their own sons and daughters to do the same. But it cost money, more money than they could afford, to send them to such a school. And there we have the groundwork for the movement for free schools.

But we have not yet finished with our preliminaries. We find also that there were growing dissatisfactions with the academy itself, mention and an enumeration of which have already been made. The school just wasn't doing the job for those who did not intend to go to college but who wanted somewhat the same kind of things for which the academy itself had been instituted. What was wanted was a "return to fundamentals."

All these objections and desires were tied up with the nascent concepts of a democratic society. The doctrine of individualism also brought with it the realization of interdependence. Men are free and equal. Yes, but how far are they free and equal? In order to avoid anarchy and chaos they must agree upon certain mutual obligations. One of these went back to the purposes of primitive society, to prepare the younger generation to assume its duties of citizenship, when the proper time arrived. This type of preparation constituted, as we have learned, *the* education of primitive youth of the best periods of Athens and Rome. We have now a resurgence of that idea, namely, that it is the duty of the State to provide for the education of its wards. The argument was that if all were to have an equal chance, the favors of birth being discounted, poor and rich should be treated on a par with respect to training for citizenship.

The First Public High School in Boston

The movement grew steadily, resulting in the action taken by the Boston School Committee in founding the first public high school in the country in the year 1821. The following plan of organization and course of studies was proposed:

1st. That the term of time for pursuing the course of studies proposed, be three years.

2ndly. That the School be divided into three classes, and one year be assigned to the studies of each class.

3rdly. That the age of admission be not less than twelve years.

4thly. That the school be for Boys exclusively.

5thly. That candidates for admission be proposed on a given day annually; but scholars with suitable qualifications may be admitted at any intermediate time to an advanced standing.

6thly. That candidates for admission shall be subject to a strict examination, in such manner as the School Committee may direct, to ascertain their qualifications according to these rules.

7thly. That it be required of every candidate, to qualify him for admission, that he be well acquainted with reading, writing, English grammar in all its branches, and arithmetic, as far as simple proportion.

8thly. That it be required of the Masters and Ushers, as a necessary qualification, that they shall have been regularly educated at some university.

First Class: Composition; reading from the most approved authors;

exercises in criticism, comprising critical analyses of the language, grammar, and style of the best English authors, their errors and beauties; Declamation; Geography; Arithmetic continued.

Second Class: Composition, Reading, Exercises in Criticism, Declamation; Algebra; Ancient and Modern History and Chronology; Logic; Geometry; Plane Trigonometry, and its application to mensuration of heights and distances; Navigation; Surveying; Mensuration of Surfaces and Solids; Forensic Discussions.

Third Class: Composition; Exercises in Criticism; Declamation; Mathematics; Logic; History, particularly that of the United States; Natural Philosophy; including Astronomy; Moral and Political Philosophy.¹¹

From the above record we observe especially five things: the three-year length of the course, the restriction to boys, the expectation of previous preparation on the part of each candidate, the minimum entrance age limit of 12, and a course of study quite similar to that of the English department of Phillips Exeter Academy.

The Hartford, Connecticut, Public High School

To get a picture of what happened to the spread of high school ideas from Boston and what vicissitudes the institution underwent in its early days we shall show how it was established in another New England town, Hartford, Connecticut. The account is taken from the town records, so that no special credit shall be given for their source.

The Hopkins Grammar School fell into disrepute toward the end of the eighteenth century and was turned over to an incorporated body of trustees in 1798. They carried on the school as an academy for 50 years, during which time the influence of the English High School of Boston was emanating from its hub all over New England. In 1838 Henry Barnard advocated the establishment of a similar school in Hartford. In 1839 he prevailed upon the legislature to pass a bill enabling two or more school districts to unite for the purpose of establishing a school of a higher order. For the next three years he led the fight for a union school in place of a Society High School. The trustees of the academy were sounded out on their views. They gave the assurance that whenever the community was prepared to

¹¹ E. P. Cubberley, *Readings in Public Education in the United States*, pp. 230-231. Quoted from *Minutes of the Boston School Committee*, 1821. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1934.

establish a public school of a higher order on a permanent basis, they would coöperate in every way.

In 1841 the Board of School Visitors submitted a plan to the three school districts of the city, whereby they were to consolidate and join in building a Union High School. In the district meetings held in the winter of 1842 such cries as "vested rights," "steady habits in the good old ways," "no taxation for other people's children," "let well enough alone," "what was good enough for the father was good enough for the son," "none of your high schools for me," succeeded in defeating the scheme of consolidation.

The proponents of the high school were temporarily discouraged by their failure to accomplish their purpose. Furthermore, the reactionary legislature of 1842 passed an act whereby city districts were deprived of the facilities of uniting to establish a common high school; so that the First School Society was the only agent left for the establishment of a high school. Through the unceasing and untiring efforts of Henry Barnard and James M. Bunce such a publicity campaign was begun that, on January 11, 1847, the voters of the First School Society met in full force and appointed a committee to inquire into the best means for establishing the much needed high school. This committee reported to the Society the first of March and presented a set of resolutions for action by the Society. These resolutions were discussed and debated, and at an adjourned meeting held March 8 were passed. The building committee proceeded to erect a building, and arrangements were made with the trustees of the Grammar School whereby they were to employ their funds to supply and sustain a classical teacher in the high school. In 1857 the course was extended from 4 years to 5, but in 1862 it was returned to 4 years.

Objections to the High School

This description of the evolution of one high school has been presented in order to give you some idea of the trials and tribulations that beset one earnest group of men and women in their endeavors to awaken their townsmen to the pressing needs of secondary education. The objections raised were such as we might expect to find. The moneyed group didn't want to pay for the education of the poorer. They were already expending money for the private acad-

emy. And those who had no children took exception to paying taxes for those who had. Here we find the influence of tradition. Omitting those places where the people were accustomed to seeing part of the local levy go toward the grammar school and the academy, we have found that parents had become habituated to the idea that they were the ones who should bear the expenses of the secondary education of their own children. Since this had been the prevalent notion for 23 centuries, we can understand how hard it was to change to a new conception of social responsibilities.

Legalizing the High School

But the social forces that had been stirred up by the three revolutions, the industrial, the American, and the French, were too strong to be denied. Publicly supported secondary education as a tenet of the American democratic way of life was here to stay, even if, for over half a century, it found the going very rough. As early as 1827 Massachusetts enacted a law that dealt with the required establishment of high schools and the subjects that should be taught. It is somewhat analogous to the Law of 1647.

Each town or district within this Commonwealth containing fifty families, or householders, shall be provided with a teacher or teachers, of good morals, to instruct children in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, and good behavior, for such term of time as shall be equivalent to six months for one school in each year; and every town or district containing one hundred families or householders, shall be provided with such teacher or teachers for such term of time as shall be equivalent to twenty-four months, for one school in each year, and shall also be provided with a master of good morals, competent to instruct, in addition to the branches of learning aforesaid, the history of the United States, bookkeeping by single entry, geometry, surveying, algebra, and shall employ such master to instruct a school, in such city, town, or district, for the benefit of all the inhabitants thereof, at least ten months in each year, exclusive of vacations, in such convenient place, or alternately at such places in such city, town, or district, as the said inhabitants, at their meeting in March, or April, annually, shall determine; and in every city, or town, containing four thousand inhabitants, such master shall be competent in addition to all the foregoing branches to instruct the Latin and Greek languages, history, rhetoric, and logic.¹²

¹² *Laws of Massachusetts*, January session, 1827, chap. CXLIII.

As yet we find no legislation concerning the requirements of attendance. In a century and a half we have not advanced beyond a requirement that schools be established. Society was not yet ready to take the step to require attendance of youth.

The Boston English High School set one precedent that must have affected the organization of other schools. It was for boys only. In several of the eastern cities we find this distinction still observed; there are separate high schools for boys and for girls. Smaller communities could not afford to erect and support two institutions. If they were to have even one high school, it would, for financial reasons, if for no other, have to be coeducational.

High School for Girls

Within 5 years after the opening of the English High School, three schools for girls came into existence at Worcester, Massachusetts, in 1824, and in New York and Boston in 1826. In Boston, the girls were to be taught

Reading, Spelling, Writing, words and sentences from dictation, English Grammar, with exercises in the same, Composition, Modern and Ancient Geography, Intellectual and Written Arithmetic, Rhetoric, General History, History of the United States, Rome and Greece, Bookkeeping by Single Entry, Elements of Geometry, Demonstrative Geometry, Algebra, the Latin and French Languages, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Botany, Logic, Astronomy, the use of Globes, Projection of Maps, Principles of Perspective, Moral Philosophy, and the Evidences of Christianity.¹³

The academy had spread so widely that the public school had a hard time making headway in many places, since the chief taxpayers were also the trustees and supporters of the academy. So we find that the number of high schools grew slowly, but gradually, during the rest of the nineteenth century. Some idea of the situation may be gathered from Table 1 prepared by Dexter.

The Growth of the High School in the Nineteenth Century

Just as we noted the decline in interest in public education that attended the middle of the eighteenth century, so we find a corre-

¹³ Cubberley, *op. cit.*, p. 231, from advertisement in the *Boston Columbian Centinel*, November 5, 1825.

TABLE 1. Establishment of Public High Schools During the Nineteenth Century*

Decades	North Atlantic	South Atlantic	South Central	North Central	Western	Total
1820-1829	6		1			7
1830-1839	10	1	1	2		14
1840-1849	27	4	3	9		43
1850-1859	67	1	5	34	1	108
1860-1869	60	7	3	103	4	177
1870-1879	121	25	27	298	8	479
1880-1889	142	47	103	508	29	829
1890-1899	318	91	161	595	155	1320
Total	751	176	304	1549	197	2977

* E. G. Dexter, *A History of Education in the United States*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1904, pp. 172-173.

sponding situation a century later. Then it was the coming strife with England. This time it was the coming strife between the states. As soon as the struggle was over we find an increase of almost 200 percent in the number of new high schools. From then on we are to see a growth that has been, to say the least, phenomenal.

The Kalamazoo Decision

This growth was stimulated by various events. One was the famous Kalamazoo court decision, which determined the legal basis for public support of high schools. A taxpayer citizen of this town by the name of Stuart brought suit to prevent the town from using any tax money to pay for the upkeep of the local high school. The final decision in the case was given by Chief Justice Cooley of the Supreme Court. His opinions are worth quoting because they set the precedent in the case of similar suits brought by citizens in other states.

The instrument¹⁴ submitted by the convention to the people and adopted by them provided for the establishment of free schools in every school district for at least three months in each year, and for the university. . . . The inference seems irresistible that the people expected the tendency towards the establishment of high schools in the primary-school districts would continue until every locality capable of supporting

¹⁴ The Michigan 1850 Constitution.

one was supplied. And this inference is strengthened by the fact that a considerable number of our union schools date their establishment from the year 1850 and the two or three years following. . . . If these facts do not demonstrate clearly and conclusively a general state policy, beginning in 1817 and continuing until after the adoption of the present constitution, in the direction of free schools in which education, and at their option the elements of classical education, might be brought within the reach of all the children of the state, then, as it seems to us, nothing can demonstrate it. . . . We content ourselves with the statement that neither in our state policy, in our constitution, or in our laws, do we find the primary school districts restricted in the branches of knowledge which their officers may cause to be taught, or the grade of instruction that may be given, if their voters consent in regular form to bear the expense and raise the taxes for the purpose.¹⁵

TABLE 2. Review of Statistics of Public High Schools, 1869-1950

Years	Schools Reporting	Pupils Enrolled	Total Population	Percent of the Total Population
1869-1870		80,277	38,558,371	0.2
1879-1880		110,277	50,155,783	0.2
1889-1890	2,526	202,963	62,622,250	0.3
1899-1900	6,005	519,251	75,997,687	0.7
1909-1910	10,213	915,061	91,972,266	1.0
1919-1920	14,326	2,200,389	105,719,620	2.1
1929-1930	22,237	4,399,422	122,775,046	3.6
1939-1940		6,601,444	131,669,275	5.0
1943-1944		5,553,520	132,622,000	4.2
1947-1948	25,484	5,653,305	146,045,000	3.8
1949-1950	24,542 ^b	5,731,843 ^b	151,240,000	3.8

* Adapted from *Statistical Summary of Education, Biennial Survey, 1947-1948*, chap. 1, pp. 32-33.

^b These figures were obtained from the 1948-1950 *Biennial Survey*, p. 6.

Prior to 1930, the data analyzed by the Office of Education were taken only from those schools who made reports to the office. Beginning with that date, a record was kept of the total number of schools of which there was not any record, as well as the number of those which did submit their reports. In 1930 the percentage was

¹⁵ Charles E. Stuart *et al.* vs. School District No. 1 of the Village of Kalamazoo, 30 Michigan, p. 39 ff.

93, in 1934 it was 95, but in 1938 it was up to 99. Even so, we can make some warranted conclusions from the table. In 7 decades the number of schools increased 1000 percent, and the number of students 7000 percent, while the population was quadrupled. Whereas 2 in 1000 went to high school in 1870, 1 in 28 was attending in 1948. It is no wonder that it came to be called the people's college.

The public high school is today the typically American secondary educational institution. During its 13 decades of existence it has experienced an astounding growth and development. The early high school followed the pattern of the first academies by laying stress on the more practical aspects of education, although it, too, kept the way open for those who wished to enter college. The power of the academy and the conflict between the states slowed down its growth for its first 75 years. Then, too, even though it had been initiated for the reasons previously mentioned, it took time for parents to get accustomed to the idea that free secondary education was available for their children. The result was that, toward the end of the nineteenth century, the classical, or college preparatory, department was receiving the major attention and emphasis. It shall be our endeavor in the next chapter to learn how the changes that characterized the modern high school were effected.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. Undoubtedly there were early academies in your state. Report on the history of one.
2. How many academies, independent and parochial, are there in your state today? What influence do they exert, locally or materially?
3. Consult Porter Sargent's *Handbook of Private Schools*. Comment on his characterization of some of the schools included.
4. Report on the history of your own secondary school.

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The Secondary School of the Twentieth Century

THIS is the school that most of us know. It is "that large, handsome building over there" or "that little white-washed edifice that is hidden among the trees." It is the institution to which more and more of us look back longingly as the determiner of our character enzymes or hormones all during our teens. It's the place where we first began to find ourselves as being somebody. It's where we were strutting "big shots" or adoring admirers of the "big shots." It is where we learned a few things that we seem to remember. Somehow these don't seem to be quite so important now as they did then. And it is the place where we fell in love, "me and my gal."

It is an interesting institution, because there is nothing quite like it anywhere else in the world. Features that make it unique are the numbers enrolled, the even division between sexes, the inclusion of vocational education with the academic pattern, the freedom of choice in electing curricula and subjects, the guidance system, the extracurricular and athletic programs, the length of school day and term, the balance between centralized and local control, the close relations between the school and the parents, the wonderfully furnished and equipped libraries, laboratories, classrooms, and playgrounds, and the enormous expenditure of public funds for the support of all these items. Not all community schools boast the possession of the above advantages to a maximum degree, but, in the country as a whole, the picture is as we have painted it.

Now, to understand how all these things came to pass, it is necessary for us to consider the developments of the past five decades and

to analyze some statistical data. Tables of statistics may seem somewhat foreboding to you because so many figures are massed together in one spot. It is hard to see the woods for the trees. But, if it were not for these same statistics from which we may draw some warranted conclusions, we would be very much in the dark with respect to trends. You may have heard the statement, "Figures don't lie, but liars figure." Let us hope that the latter charge may not be flung at us. So bear with us while we try to extricate ourselves from a seeming morass of figures.

The United States Office of Education asks all the secondary schools of the country, private as well as public, to send in, biennially, a statistical report on various phases of the school population and organization. The task of assembling and interpreting these data takes time. For this reason, published data are from 2 to 4 years old when they are made available to the public. At the most, then, we are always 2 years behind the actual situation. But, so long as we are able to make historical comparisons with similar data previously compiled, and since revolutionary changes do not ordinarily take place within the space of 2 years, we can procure a fairly accurate picture of what has been going on.

Most of the tables which follow have been abstracted from chapters 1 and 2 of the 1949-1950 Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, the latest and most reliable source of information. Chapter 1 deals with the statistical summary for 1949-1950; chapter 2 with statistics of state school systems. The footnote reference will state only the chapter, the table, and the page for each table quoted or abstracted.

Every change that has taken place in the size and composition of the population of the United States is reflected in the schools. If there is an increase in population, there will be more boys and girls going to school. This means more expense, more buildings, increased facilities, more teachers, and an expanded curriculum. Let us, then, for a while, see how the data to be presented form any kind of picture in your minds relative to education in the United States.

We shall present our statistical studies in the following order: characteristics of the total population, the educational status of adults, the size and type of secondary schools, and survival rates throughout the whole school system.

Characteristics of the Total Population

Not only has the population of our country increased from decade to decade; it has undergone a great change in the proportion of those who now live in urban areas as compared to rural dwellers. Table 3 is a composite of data assembled from Tables 22 and 25 on pages 28 and 30 of the 1952 *Statistical Abstract of the United States*.

TABLE 3. Urban and Rural Population of the United States, 1920-1950

Decade	Total	Population Urban	Rural	Percent Urban	Percent Rural
1920	105,710,620	54,157,973	51,552,647	51.2	48.8
1930	122,775,046	68,954,823	53,820,223	56.2	43.8
1940	131,669,275	74,423,702	57,245,273	56.5	43.5
1950	150,697,361	88,927,464	61,769,897	59.0	41.0

The comments made following the 1940 census report are as applicable today as they were then:

The marked decline in the rate of urban growth is attributable in larger measure to the economic conditions of the past decade. These conditions have slowed down the movement of population from rural to urban areas, and have also reduced somewhat the rate of national increase. Hence the urban areas have grown far less in comparison with past decades, from the inflow of rural inhabitants, and somewhat less from the excess of births over deaths. Finally, immigration from foreign countries, which is at least partially related to economic conditions in this country, virtually ceased during the 1930's. In past decades such immigration has contributed greatly to urban growth; in the period from 1930 to 1940, during which net immigration was a minus quantity and gross immigration only a few hundred thousand, it is obvious that immigration could have contributed very little. . . . In general, the urban percentages have gone down in those regions and States where they were high, and have increased in those regions where they were low—have declined in the northeastern divisions and the Pacific Coast States, and have increased in most of the rest of the country.¹

The gradual proportional decrease in the rural population poses two problems. There will be a tendency to do away with one-room

¹ Bull. P-3, No. 7, 1940 Census, released January 18, 1941.

schools and small high schools in favor of consolidated and metropolitan districts, because the small schools will be too expensive to maintain in proportion to the services they can render. There will also arise the necessity of providing more schools in the urban areas, which seem to have the largest birth rate. Another factor that is now meriting attention is the trek of middle and upper class families into suburban subdivisions that are actually rural in character. These people will demand a better grade of school than has been accepted as good enough by their agricultural neighbors.

Occupational Composition

Another thing that we need to know about our population is its occupational composition. Since ours is a high school of all the people, we ask ourselves, "Who are all the people who send their boys and girls to the high school?" We have learned from our study of the secondary school of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries that those who sent their boys and girls to the academy and high school belonged to those strata of society that were more favored socially and economically. And this situation existed in spite of the claims that averred the practical nature of the school.

We are presenting two separate tables to show the trends and present status of the occupations of the employed population. The first table considers only the status of the parents of boys and girls attending secondary schools in cities widely scattered throughout the country.

It is true that the percentages in Table 4 were not obtained from the same sources. Nevertheless, they are sufficiently comparable for us to draw some conclusions from them, since the situation that exists today is not too different. Counts's study showed a preponderance of pupils coming from homes of higher income brackets, proprietors, managerial service, commercial and professional services, a total of 55 percent. According to Uhl, pupils of a like proportion came from the agricultural, proprietor, common labor and managerial groups. Dear's analysis showed that 55 percent came from the machine and building trades, and the managerial, transportation, agricultural, and commercial services. Children from the group represented by common labor show increased representation according to Uhl and Dear. In other words, a revolution is actually taking

TABLE 4. Occupational Status of Parents of Secondary School Boys and Girls

	Dear ^a	Uhl ^b	Counts ^c
Machine trades	12.9	5.3	7.1
Building trades	10.2	4.7	7.7
Managerial service	9.2	6.8	16.5
Transportation service	8.7	4.4	4.9
Agricultural service	8.2	26.9	2.4
Commercial service	6.6	5.9	9.5
Miners, lumbermen, and fishermen	5.8	1.2	0.4
Proprietors	5.1	11.3	19.8
Common labor	4.8	9.4	1.2
Professional service	2.8	4.9	9.4
Clerical service	2.7	2.2	5.8
Miscellaneous trades	3.0	3.4	3.8
Public service	2.3	1.1	1.6
Artisan-proprietors	1.8	3.2	4.2
Printing trades	0.7	0.3	1.1
Unknown	12.9	4.9	3.2

^a R. Ernest Dear, "Distribution and Persistence According to Paternal Occupations Represented in the Secondary Schools of Michigan," *J. Educ. Research*, 26, 591 (1933).

^b W. L. Uhl, "Selection in the Secondary Schools of Wisconsin," *Principles of Secondary Education*, Silver, Burdett Company, New York, 1925, p. 215.

^c G. S. Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1922, p. 22.

place in the nature of the social and economic background of boys and girls. No longer do they come largely from the more favored homes, and no longer can we as teachers assume that all our students are "eager beavers."

The differences in percentages between the experienced labor force and employed persons are not significant enough to make any distinctions between them. The largest groups are those that include operatives, craftsmen and foremen, and clerical workers. The smallest groups are those engaged in household work, farm labor, and common labor. Professional, managerial, service, and sales people occupy an intermediate position. And yet we find from Table 4 that it is this group that has the largest number of children in secondary schools. Nevertheless, the increased enrollment in our schools is coming from the other groups.

What this means to you who are going to teach the youngsters in

TABLE 5. Occupation of the Experienced Labor Force and of Employed Persons for the United States, 1950*

Total, 14 Years Old and Over	Experienced Labor Force 58,998,943	Percent 100	Employed Persons 56,225,340	Percent 100
Professional, technical and kindred workers	4,988,012	8.45	4,009,241	8.73
Farmers and farm managers	4,320,576	7.32	4,306,253	7.66
Managers, official, and proprietors, except farm	5,076,436	8.60	5,017,465	8.92
Clerical and kindred workers	7,070,023	11.98	6,891,374	12.26
Sales workers	4,044,143	6.85	3,926,510	6.98
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	8,152,743	13.82	7,772,560	13.82
Operatives and kindred workers	11,715,606	19.86	11,146,220	19.82
Private household workers	1,487,574	2.52	1,407,466	2.50
Service workers, except private household	4,511,996	7.65	4,287,703	7.63
Farm laborers and foremen	2,514,780	4.26	2,399,794	4.27
Laborers, except farm and mine	3,750,990	6.36	3,417,232	6.08
Occupation not reported	1,366,064	2.32	740,522	1.32

* Abstracted from Table 124, pp. 261-266 of the 1950 United States *Census of Population*, Bull. P-A1.

these schools is that you cannot expect the same kind and quality of information and intellectual skills that have been expected in the past. Some critics will say that you will be lowering standards if you bring your teaching materials within the social comprehension of your pupils. What would you do? Fit the last to the pupil, or the pupil to the last? Was man made for the Sabbath, or was Sabbath made for man? There are many teachers whom you have had as instructors and who will be teaching with you who sincerely believe that youngsters who come under their tutelage must be made to conform to certain standards that *must be met*. Then, when they find that the boys and girls fail to meet these standards they shrug their shoulders, as much as to say, "Now, isn't that too bad, but there's nothing we can do about it." There is something, a great deal, in fact, that can be done about it when we realize the nature of the social and economic backgrounds, the presence or absence of favorable learning facilities at home, the ambitions of the parents, and the intellectual capacities of youth.

What other characteristics of our population merit consideration? One concerns its estimated growth as an index to future challenges. The other is the past enrollment of pupils of secondary school age with respect to the total population for this group.

TABLE 6. Estimated Population: 1950-1975*

Year	All Ages (thousands)	5-14 Years of Age (thousands)	15-19 Years of Age (thousands)
1950	151,677	24,444	10,680
1955	164,614	30,487	11,190
1960	176,126	35,807	13,383
1965	186,146	36,193	17,197
1970	202,359	38,420	18,777
1975	213,568	39,980	18,747

* U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports. Population Estimates*, Series P-25, No. 78. August 21, 1953.

TABLE 7. Total Public and Nonpublic Secondary School Enrollment and Population, 14-17 Years of Age, 1889-1890 to 1947-1948*

Year	Enrollment Grades 9-12 and Postgraduates		Population 14-17 Yrs. of age		Number Enrolled per 100 Population 14-17 Years of Age
	Number	Percent Increase Over 1889- 1890	Number	Percent Increase Over 1889- 1890	
1889-1890	359,949	5,354,653	...	7
1899-1900	699,403	94.3	6,152,231	14.9	11
1909-1910	1,115,398	209.9	7,220,298	34.8	15
1919-1920	2,500,176	594.6	7,735,841	44.5	32
1929-1930	4,804,255	1,234.7	9,341,221	74.5	51
1939-1940	7,123,009	1,878.9	9,720,419	81.5	73
1941-1942	6,933,265	1,826.2	9,547,713 ^b	78.3	73
1943-1944	8,030,617	1,575.4	9,280,273 ^b	73.3	63
1945-1946	6,237,133	1,632.8	8,903,074 ^b	66.5	70
1947-1948	6,305,168	1,651.7	8,567,971 ^b	60.0	74

* *Statistical Summary of Education, 1947-1948*, chap. 1; *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-1948*, Washington, D.C. 1950, p. 25.

^b Population estimated on basis of births, life tables, and U.S. Census.

We can see the steadily increasing proportion of those who are going to the secondary school, but we also see the problems we are going to face in the near future in this mass increase of those who are going to crowd our classrooms, corridors, and play areas. We should be "giving heed today to the things of tomorrow."

Table 6 shows a gradual leveling off around 1975, whereas Table 7 gives startling proof of reversal of a trend that was effected by the depression of the thirties. We note a continued drop in the gross number of the 14-17 year olds after 1939-1940, just when those would be coming along who were the first to be born in the depression years. There were those prophets who predicted that the declining birth rate thus manifested would be a continuing factor in stabilizing our population and our economy, all of which goes to show the unpredictability of some prophecies. Little did these folk reckon on what was to happen as a result of World War II. This holocaust acted as a stimulant to earlier marriage and more babies, thus negating the stabilization that was supposed to come. The effects of the great rise in the birth rate threw our elementary schools off schedule just after mid-century. Inevitably, of course, the secondary schools would shortly feel their impact.

Educational Levels of Parents

With respect to parental ambitions for their children we have two groups: those who desire their youngsters to go on and enjoy educational advantages beyond those that they themselves were privileged to have, and those who are satisfied if their sons and daughters have no more than they themselves had. Economic necessity is often the factor that determines the attitude of this second group. A picture of the educational experience of parents is presented in Table 8.

These figures were obtained from a study of fourteen Indiana high schools who had filled out Blank C of the *Evaluative Criteria*.² The schools ranged in enrollment from 100 to 1,000 and represented a fair cross section of a midwestern state. Fifty percent of the fathers and almost the same percent of the mothers had no more than an elementary school education, while only 15 percent of the fathers

² *Evaluative Criteria*, Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, Washington, D.C., 1940.

TABLE 8. Educational Levels Attained by Parents of Secondary School Pupils

Educational Level	Total	Percent	Men	Percent	Women	Percent
Attended but did not finish elementary school	972	13.4	561	15.4	411	11.4
Completed elementary school	2573	35.6	1285	35.4	1288	35.7
Attended but did not complete secondary school	1335	18.4	669	18.4	666	18.5
Graduated from high school	1261	17.4	568	15.6	693	19.2
Attended but did not graduate from college	416	5.7	205	5.6	211	5.8
Graduated from junior college or normal school	242	3.3	95	2.6	147	4.1
Graduated from college	446	6.2	252	6.9	194	5.4
Total	7245	100.0	3635	99.9	2610	100.1

and mothers had gone beyond high school. To sum up, only one-third of them had had any kind of schooling beyond that of the elementary level. You can see what this means in terms of any first-hand understanding that two-thirds of these parents would have of the nature of the work carried on in secondary school and college, and how little guidance they themselves would be able to give their own children with respect to their elections of courses and curricula.

Expectancy of Stay in School

It is obvious that, in all matters that concern life and living, the number of those who survive from each year to the next decreases, so that there are always fewer to deal with. We shall now present you with several tables that show how, so far as grade level expectancy is concerned, there is a decrease, whereas there is an increase in the actual number of those who continue to stay in school a year and more due to increased population. Tables 7 and 9 reveal that effect of the depression on school enrollment. Any discrepancy between comparable figures in the two tables is due to the fact that Table 9 includes only public high school enrollment. We note from both tables how the declining birth rate of the thirties was responsible for a decline in the 1943-1944 enrollment. From then on the increase has been a gradual one, with the expectancy that it will get almost out of control by 1960.

TABLE 9. Relation Between School Enrollment and Total Population*

Year	Total Population in Thousands	Pupils Enrolled in Public High School	Total Number of Teachers	Percent Sec- ondary En- rollment is of Total Enrollment
1869-1870	38,558	80	201	1.2
1879-1880	50,156	110	287	1.1
1889-1890	62,622	203	364	1.6
1899-1900	75,603	519	423	3.3
1909-1910	91,972	915	523	5.1
1919-1920	105,711	2,200	680	10.2
1929-1930	122,775	4,399	854	17.1
1939-1940	131,892	6,601	876	26.0
1943-1944	138,083	5,554	828	23.9
1947-1948	146,113	5,653	861	23.6
1949-1950	151,240	5,707	914	22.7

* *Statistical Summary of Education, 1949-1950, p. 17. Adapted from Table 13.*

In order to figure the survival rate from the first grade to the twelfth, we do not consider the enrollments by grade for any one year. We begin, as you note in Table 10, with the enrollment for the first grade in a particular year. Then we get it for each ensuing year, so that we are always dealing with the same group. This means,

TABLE 10. Enrollment by Grade for Each Succeeding Year*

Year	Grade	Enrollment	Percent of Total Enrollment for That Year
1938-1939	1	3,167,803	12.3
1939-1940	2	2,333,076	9.2
1940-1941	3	2,263,315	8.9
1941-1942	4	2,196,732	8.9
1942-1943	5	2,101,723	8.7
1943-1944	6	1,997,800	8.6
1944-1945	7	1,897,743	8.2
1945-1946	8	1,653,683	7.1
1946-1947	9	1,761,020	7.5
1947-1948	10	1,502,743	6.3
1948-1949	11	1,267,483	5.2
1949-1950	12	1,122,872	4.5

* *Statistical Summary of Education, 1949-1950, Table 14.*

then, that 35 percent of those who entered the first grade in 1938-1939 were in the twelfth grade in 1949-1950.

Another picture of secondary school enrollment may be obtained from the next four tables, each of which treats the situation from a different angle. Table 11 shows that, over a 12-year period, the

TABLE 11. Number Continuing Through High School per 1000 Pupils Enrolled in the First Year of High School in Public and Nonpublic Schools in the Year Indicated by High School Year*

Year	Number per 1000 in First Year				Graduates	Year of Graduation
	I	II	III	IV		
1934-1935	1000	847	687	601	541	1938
1935-1936	1000	835	700	617	554	1939
1936-1937	1000	845	725	649	579	1940
1937-1938	1000	868	751	618	583	1941
1938-1939	1000	885	760	638	582	1942
1939-1940	1000	891	721	573	540	1943
1940-1941	1000	838	660	506	469	1944
1941-1942	1000	837	640	527	490	1945
1942-1943	1000	822	668	558	526	1946
1943-1944	1000	862	707	609	577	1947
1944-1945	1000	892	725	649	616	1948
1945-1946	1000	885	736	652	618	1949
1946-1947	1000	884	748	660	625	1950

* Adapted from Table 17, *Statistical Summary of Education, 1949-1950*, p. 20.

percentage of those entering the ninth grade and remaining to graduate has increased from 54 to 62. Table 12 reveals what has happened with respect to boys and girls. Whereas in 1909-1910 the ratio was 56 to 44 in favor of the girls, it is now almost fifty-fifty, 51 for the girls and 49 for the boys. Note again the situation in 1943-1944, when only 46 percent of school enrollment was masculine. The war was responsible for this wide variation, whereas the economic situation today has resulted in near parity.

Our last table in this series reveals the startling changes that 80 years have wrought in the character of the secondary school population with respect to the number eligible to graduate. In 1869-1870, only 2 percent of the 17-year-old population graduated from all types of secondary schools, public and nonpublic. What a select

TABLE 12. Enrollment in Public High School Grades (Last 4 Years of Secondary School System) and Percent of Change, by Sex, for Specified Years*

Year	Total	Enrollments (thousands)		Percent		Percent of Change over Previous Enrollment Given
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
1909-1910	915	398	517	43.6	56.4	
1919-1920	2,200	992	1,208	45.1	54.9	140.4
1929-1930	4,399	2,115	2,284	48.1	51.9	99.9
1939-1940	6,601	3,251	3,350	49.2	50.8	6.0
1943-1944	5,554	2,554	3,000	46.0	54.0	9.3
1949-1950	5,707	2,812	2,895	49.3	50.7	0.9

* Chapter 2 of *Statistics of State School Systems, 1949-1950*, p. 16 (adapted).

group this must have been! In 1949, almost 60 percent were graduating. Another item to observe is that 44 percent of the graduates were boys in 1869-1870, and 48 percent in 1949-1950. Although they had increased numerically and proportionately, the girls still had longer staying powers.

TABLE 13. Number of High School Graduates, Public and Nonpublic, Compared with Population 17 Years of Age 1869-1870 to 1949-1950*

Year	Population 17 Years Old	Total	Boys	Girls	Number Graduated per 100 Per- sons 17 Years of Age
1869-1870	815,000	16,000	7,064	8,936	2.0
1879-1880	946,026	23,634	10,603	13,029	2.5
1889-1890	1,259,177	43,731	18,549	25,182	3.5
1899-1900	1,489,146	94,883	38,075	56,808	6.4
1909-1910	1,786,240	156,429	63,676	92,753	8.8
1919-1920	1,855,173	311,266	123,634	187,582	16.8
1929-1930	2,295,822	666,904	300,376	366,528	29.0
1939-1940	2,403,074	1,221,475	578,718	642,757	50.8
1941-1942	2,425,574	1,242,375	576,717	665,658	51.2
1943-1944	2,410,389	1,019,233	423,971	595,262	42.3
1945-1946	2,254,738	1,080,033	466,926	613,107	47.9
1947-1948	2,202,927	1,189,909	562,863	627,046	54.0
1949-1950	2,034,450	1,199,700	570,700	629,000	59.0

* *Statistical Summary of Education, 1949-1950*, Table 19, p. 24.

only slightly lower than that which characterizes the average senior in the public school. The public school as a rule is much more democratic in its pupil population than is the private school. The implications for curriculum content and organization, for instructional methodology, and for guidance practices in schools are clear. It is quite evident that the more selective private schools can and should expect a higher average level of academic achievement than the average public schools.

Dr. Eells selected 11 representative schools for purposes of comparison. The mean scores ranged from 149.3 to 168.

The upper five-sixths of the pupils in school "A" are superior in scholastic ability to the average of those in school "B." They are superior to the lower five-sixths of those in school "I" and to all of those in school "K." All but one of the pupils in school "K" are inferior in scholastic ability to the average of those in school "J." The lowest score in school "A" (92) was higher than the highest score (91) in school "K." These data give "additional evidence of the importance of each school's adjusting its educational program and procedure to the needs and capacities of its pupils, also of the necessity of evaluating such a school in terms of the nature of its pupil population. Attention should also be drawn to the wide variation of abilities within each school."

Type and Size of Secondary Schools

The type of school in which you may teach presents another problem. Some people are so accustomed to thinking of a secondary school in terms of 4 years that they fail to appreciate that there are other types of organization. The usual pattern in the minds of these people is an elementary school of 8 (or 7 in some southern states) grades, followed by a high school of 4 years. Never in the history of our schools, with the exception of the grammar school, has there been any other characteristic of the secondary school than that of variation. Academies differed in their offering and length of term. The Committee of Ten found fault with the secondary schools of the 1890's because there were so many variations in everything that they did. The committee tried its best to set up patterns of uniformity. However, the genius of the American people would not tolerate a strait-jacket type of control over its schools. The result has been that states and local communities have been left free to have 11- or 12-year systems, 3-, 4-, 5-, or 6-year high schools, junior

TABLE 14. Number and Percent of Public High Schools by Size and Type, 1930-1952*

Enrollment	1930		1938		1946		1952	
	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent
Regular High Schools								
1-9			467	3.0	219	1.6	179	1.8
10-24	2,013	12.2	1,346	8.7	901	6.5	591	5.8
25-49	3,618	22.0	2,399	15.5	2,369	17.2	1,591	15.6
50-74	3,116	18.9	2,462	15.9	2,521	18.3	1,697	16.7
75-99	2,157	13.1	1,900	12.2	1,739	12.6	1,279	12.6
100-199	3,229	19.6	3,794	24.4	3,193	23.1	2,500	24.6
200-299	881	5.4	1,227	7.9	1,179	8.6	895	8.8
300-499	623	3.8	847	5.5	747	5.4	672	6.6
500-999	409	2.5	517	3.3	483	3.5	430	4.2
1000-2499	297	1.8	411	2.6	358	2.6	307	3.0
2500 or more	117	0.7	153	1.0	88	0.6	27	0.3
Total	16,460	100.0	15,523	100.0	13,797	100.0	10,188	100.0
Reorganized High Schools								
1-9					15	0.1	5	
10-24	64	1.1	28	0.3	74	0.7	49	0.4
25-49	248	4.3	244	2.6	316	3.1	305	2.2
50-74	405	7.0	589	6.2	595	5.8	614	4.5
75-99	356	6.7	761	8.0	808	7.8	807	5.9
100-199	1,374	23.8	2,613	27.4	2,724	26.4	3,525	26.0
200-299	752	13.0	1,334	14.0	1,462	14.2	2,208	16.3
300-499	855	14.8	1,424	14.9	1,623	15.7	2,434	17.9
500-999	1,012	17.5	1,423	14.9	1,717	16.6	2,327	17.1
1000-2499	637	11.0	1,033	10.8	945	9.2	1,229	9.1
2500 or more	44	0.8	87	0.9	46	0.4	75	0.6
Total	5,777	100.0	9,534	100.0	10,325	100.0	13,578	100.0
All High Schools								
1-9			467	1.9	234	1.0	184	0.8
10-24	2,077	9.3	1,372	5.5	975	4.0	640	2.7
25-49	3,866	17.4	2,643	10.5	2,685	11.1	1,896	8.0
50-74	3,521	15.8	3,051	12.2	3,116	12.9	2,311	9.7
75-99	2,543	11.4	2,661	10.6	2,547	10.6	2,086	8.8
100-199	4,603	20.7	6,407	25.6	5,917	24.5	6,025	25.4
200-299	1,633	7.4	2,561	10.2	2,641	11.0	3,103	13.0
300-499	1,478	6.7	2,271	9.1	2,370	9.8	3,106	13.1
500-999	1,421	6.4	1,940	7.7	2,200	9.1	2,757	11.6
1000-2499	934	4.2	1,444	5.7	1,303	5.4	1,536	6.5
2500-4999	131	0.6	199	0.8	122	0.5	97	0.4
5000 or more	27	0.1	41	0.2	12	0.1	5	
Total	22,237	100.0	25,057	100.0	24,122	100.0	23,746	100.0

* Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, Statistical Circular, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Circular 379, December, 1953.

high schools, senior high schools, and junior colleges. Table 14 will show how, over a 20-year period, changes have taken place in the types of secondary schools in our country. The word "regular" refers to these 4-year schools that include grades 9 through 12; the word "reorganized" refers to all other types.

The circular goes on to say:

Both the number and the percent of regular 4-year high schools continued the downward trend initiated by the reorganization movement in the early twenties. For the first time, the number of regular 4-year high schools now represents less than half of all public secondary day schools in the United States. There was an increase in the relative number of junior-senior (including undivided) high schools from 26.5 percent in 1945-46 to 36.2 percent in 1951-52, and a corresponding decrease in the percent of regular high schools from 57.2 percent to 42.8 percent in the same period. This change is due in part to the method used in the southern States in transition from an 11-year system to a 12-year system. Frequently, the transition was effected by adding a grade between the elementary grades and the high school. The additional year was developed as an eighth grade, which became the first year of the five-year high school of a 7-5 plan of organization.

In the period between the 1946 and 1952 surveys, the greatest increase both in number and percent among the types of high schools was in the junior-senior (including undivided) high schools, followed by the junior and the senior high schools. (Table 15.)

Two-thirds of all high schools are located in rural areas; but since schools in rural areas are usually smaller than urban schools, two-thirds of all pupils in secondary schools are enrolled in urban places. About five-sixths of the regular high schools and three-fourths of the junior-senior or undivided high schools are located in places of less than 2,500 population. The junior, senior, and ungraded high schools are chiefly urban.

It is incumbent upon you, as prospective teachers, to realize that your first possibility for a teaching position will be in one of these numerous and small nonurban high schools, and that you must adapt your points of view, socially and pedagogically, to living and teaching for a while in such communities. It is understandable that you will nourish ambitions to advance to larger school systems, but, while you are where you are, resolve to do the best job of which you are capable. Because your pupils will be fewer in number in these small schools, you can give them more personal attention in

TABLE 15. Number and Percent of Public Secondary Day Schools, by Type of School: 1920-1932*

Type of School	1920		1930		1938	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Junior	55	.4	1,842	8.3	2,372	9.5
Senior	22	.1	648	2.9	959	3.8
Regular	13,421	93.7	10,460	74.0	15,523	61.9
Junior-Senior	828	5.8	3,287	14.8	6,203	24.8
Total	14,326	100.0	22,237	100.0	25,057	100.0

* Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools, Statistical Circular, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Circular 379, December, 1953.

Type of School	1946		1952	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Junior	2,653	11.0	3,227	13.6
Senior	1,312	5.4	1,760	7.4
Regular	13,797	57.2	10,168	42.8
Junior-Senior	6,360	26.4	8,591	36.2
Total	24,122	100.0	23,746	100.0

view of the richer offerings provided by the larger school. Make your stay one that your pupils will remember.

The Junior College

Another form of reorganization that was not mentioned in the *Statistical Summary* is that of the junior college. Just as the junior high school may be called the downward extension of the secondary school into the elementary school, so the junior college may be termed the upward extension of the secondary school into the college. Here we shall only give some figures to parallel those already presented concerning the reorganized high school.

Of the 483 junior colleges reported in 1950, there were 256 that were publicly controlled, with an enrollment of 188,000. Typically, junior colleges are small institutions, under private control. In average enrollment the increase in the last 20 years has been from 490 to 500, with the expected drop in 1944. The largest has an enrollment of more than 6000.

TABLE 16. Junior Colleges, Number and Enrollment: 1918-1950*

Year	All Schools Reporting		Publicly Controlled		Privately Controlled	
	Number	Enrollment	Number	Enrollment	Number	Enrollment
1918	46	4,504	14	1,367	32	3,137
1920	52	8,102	10	2,940	42	5,162
1922	80	12,124	17	4,771	63	7,353
1924	132	20,559	39	9,240	93	11,319
1926	153	27,095	47	13,559	106	13,236
1928	218	44,855	114	28,437	134	16,418
1930	277	55,616	129	36,501	148	19,115
1932	342	65,003	159	58,887	183	26,176
1934	322	78,450	152	55,869	170	22,611
1936	415	102,453	187	70,557	228	31,896
1938	453	121,510	209	82,041	244	39,469
1940	456	149,854	217	107,553	239	42,301
1942	461-	141,272	231	100,783	230	40,489
1944	413	84,616	210	56,439	203	28,177
1946	460	156,456	235	100,610	225	48,816
1948	472	240,173	242	178,196	230	61,977
1950	453	242,710	256	187,695	227	55,015

* "Statistical Summary of Education," 1919-1950 *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, 1948-1950, p. 42.

SUMMARY

We might continue our statistical analysis of today's secondary school, but we probably have presented sufficient data to get some picture of what it is like. From the tables and discussions of this chapter we have learned that secondary youth are increasing in number right now, so that they form the biggest problem of individual and social adjustment that confronts us. During the war years multitudes of them were called into military and war production service. Now we must consider how we are going to educate them, especially since the labor market is enlisting more and more women. We have found that the trend has been for more and more boys and girls to attend secondary school, to stay longer, and to graduate in larger numbers; but fewer of them, in proportion to their numbers, are going on to college. Urban and rural populations have changed their ratio, according to the last census report, with the preponderance in favor of urban life. This means the persistence of the small

school in the one type of community and the increase of larger schools in the other.

The background of the home is a determining factor in the encouragement given to sons and daughters to continue with their schooling, as well as the ability of youth to meet the intellectual challenges of the school. More boys and girls are coming from what we might call the middle-class home, and they themselves present great variations in their intellectual abilities; so much so, that individuals as well as schools differ widely in what they can accomplish. Then we have the trend toward reorganization, which implies a changed attitude on your part of both content and methodology in secondary school subjects. All in all, we are in a state of flux. We can't be sure that things will be the same tomorrow that they are today. It is an exciting age in which to live. See what you can do to make it a better one.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. Examine Section B of the *Evaluative Criteria* for the kinds of information to be gathered concerning pupil population and school community.
2. If it is possible to obtain permission from your high school principal to use the data on the educational status and the occupations of parents, tabulate such data for 1940 and 1950.
3. Take a beginning class in your high school and trace the survival rates for each successive year until graduation. Do this for classes entering 1930, 1934, 1938, 1942, 1946, and 1950. Draw your own conclusions.
4. Procure a directory of schools from your State Department of Education and tabulate the various kinds of schools, regular and reorganized, in your state.

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Forces Influencing the Secondary School of the Twentieth Century

OUR next task is to obtain some understanding of those collective forces that have exerted a real influence on the twentieth century's secondary school. From time to time regularly organized educational groups, or groups with a primary interest in education, have appointed committees to study certain assigned problems and make a report of their findings and recommendations. Because of the prestige of the organization or of the members of the committee, its pronouncements have been especially influential in shaping the course of future events in the secondary school. Since the reports of these committees and organizations contain recommendations and implications that concern special phases of the school system, elementary, secondary, and high, only those elements will be included here that touch upon the more general aspects of education.

The reports that we shall examine are those of the Committee of Ten, the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, the Committee on Economy of Time in Education, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, the College Entrance Examination Board, the Committee of Nine on the Articulation of High School and College, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, the National Survey of Secondary Education, the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, and the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association. The list seems quite formidable, but we must bear in mind that each of these com-

mittees or organizations has exerted a profound influence on the course run by secondary education.

The Committee of Ten

This committee was the first to consider education from the national point of view. It was appointed by the National Education Association in 1892 to consider "the general subject of uniformity in school programs and in requirements for admission to college." The committee was headed by President Eliot of Harvard, 5 university and college men, the Commissioner of Education, William T. Harris, 1 public high school principal, and 2 headmasters of private schools.

Two hundred schools were queried as to their curriculum practices, but the results from only 40 were really used by the committee. They found

that the total number of subjects taught in the secondary schools was nearly forty . . . ; secondly, that many of these subjects were taught for such short periods that little training could be derived from them; and thirdly, that the time allotted to the same subject in the different schools varied widely. Even for the older subjects, like Latin and algebra, there appeared to be a wide diversity of practice with regard to the time allotted to them.¹

Thereupon the committee enlisted the aid of subject matter specialists and grouped them into subcommittees. Each subcommittee was to consider and make recommendations with respect to the following questions:

1. In the school course of study extending approximately from the age of six years to eighteen years—a course including the periods of both elementary and secondary instruction—at what age should the study which is the subject of the Conference be introduced?
2. After it is introduced, how many hours a week for how many years should be devoted to it?
3. How many hours a week for how many years should be devoted to it during the last four years of the complete course?

¹ Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies, U.S. Bureau of Education, Bull. 205, Washington, D C., 1893, p. 5. Also in the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1892-1893. Part III, chap. 2, pp. 1415-1494. Also published by American Book Company, New York, 1894.

4. What topics, or parts, of the subject may be reasonably covered during the whole course?

5. What topics, or parts, of the subject may best be reserved for the last four years?

6. In what form and to what extent should the subject enter into college requirements for admission?

7. Should the subject be treated differently for pupils who are going to college, for those who are going to a scientific school, and for those who, presumably, are going to neither?

8. At what stage should this differentiation begin if any be recommended?

9. Can any description be given of the best method of teaching this subject throughout the school course?

10. Can any description be given of the best mode of testing attainments in this subject at college admission examinations?

11. For those cases in which college and universities permit a division of the admission examination into a preliminary and a final examination, separated by at least a year, can the best limit between the preliminary and final examinations be approximately defined?²

Can any better evidence than the above questions be put forward to substantiate the claim that the secondary school of the last quarter of the nineteenth century had largely degenerated to the status of a college preparatory institution? What had become of the vaunted boasts of a free school that would offer practical education to those who had no yearning for a taste of college? But wait, we haven't yet finished with our evidence. You really should have it, so that you may better understand why you encounter so much conservatism among certain groups of present-day educators.

First of all, there wasn't a single group to formulate policies for the practical subjects. Secondly, the Committee opposed solidly any differentiation mentioned in questions 7 and 8.

The Committee of Ten . . . unanimously declare that every subject which is taught at all in a secondary school should be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil so long as he pursues it, *no matter what the probable destination of the pupil may be or what point his education may cease.*³

² *Ibid.*, pp. 6, 7.

³ Italics are mine. *Ibid.*, p. 17.

TABLE 17. Curricula Proposed by Committee of Ten*

Year	Classical		Latin—Scientific		Modern Languages		English	
	Three Foreign Languages (one modern)		Two Foreign Languages (one modern)		Two Foreign Languages (both modern)		One Foreign Language (ancient or modern)	
I	Latin	5 p	Latin	5 p	French (or German begun)	5 p	Latin, or German or French	5 p
	English	4 p	English	4 p	English	4 p	English	4 p
	Algebra	4 p	Algebra	4 p	Algebra	4 p	Algebra	4 p
	History	4 p	History	4 p	History	4 p	History	4 p
	Physical Geography	3 p	Physical Geography	3 p	Physical Geography	3 p	Physical Geography	3 p
		20 p		20 p		20 p		20 p
II	Latin	5 p	Latin	5 p	French (or German)	4 p	Latin, or German or French	5 or 4 p
	English	2 p	English	2 p	English	2 p	English	3 or 4 p
	German (or French) begun	4 p	German (or French) begun	4 p	German (or French) begun	5 p	Geometry	3 p
	Geometry	3 p	Geometry	3 p	Geometry	3 p	Physics	3 p
	Physics	3 p	Physics	3 p	Physics	3 p	History	3 p
	History	3 p	Botany or Zoology	3 p	Botany or Zoology	3 p	Botany or Zoology	3 p
		20 p		20 p		20 p		20 p

Latin	4 p	Latin	4 p	French (or German)	4 p	Latin, or German, or French	4 p
Greek	5 p	English	3 p	English	3 p	English	5 p
English	3 p	German (or French)	4 p	German (or French)	4 p	Mathematics	
German (or French)	4 p	Mathematics		Mathematics		Algebra 2	
III Mathematics		Algebra 2		Algebra 2		Geometry 2	4 p
Algebra 2		Geometry 2	4 p	Geometry 2	4 p	Astronomy $\frac{1}{2}$ yr and	
Geometry 2	4 p	Astronomy $\frac{1}{2}$ yr and		Astronomy $\frac{1}{2}$ yr and		Meteorology $\frac{1}{2}$ yr	3 p
		Meteorology $\frac{1}{2}$ yr	3 p	Meteorology $\frac{1}{2}$ yr	3 p	History	4 p
		History	2 p	History	2 p		
	<u>20p</u>		<u>20p</u>		<u>20p</u>		<u>20p</u>
Latin	4 p	Latin	4 p	French (or German)	3 p	Latin, or German, or French	4 p
Greek	5 p	English	4 p	English	4 p	English	4 p
English	2 p	German (or French)	3 p	German (or French)	4 p	Chemistry	3 p
German (or French)	3 p	Chemistry	3 p	Chemistry	3 p	Trigonometry and	
						Higher Algebra	3 p
IV Chemistry	3 p	Trigonometry and		Trigonometry and			
		Higher Algebra or		Higher Algebra or			
		History	3 p	History	3 p	History	3 p
Trigonometry and							
Higher Algebra or							
History							
	3 p	Geology or Physiog-		Geology or Physiog-		Geology or Physiog-	
		raphy $\frac{1}{2}$ yr and		raphy $\frac{1}{2}$ yr and		raphy $\frac{1}{2}$ yr and	
		Anatomy, Physiol-		Anatomy, Physiol-		Anatomy, Physi-	
		ogy, and Hygiene		ogy, and Hygiene		ology, and Hygiene	
		$\frac{1}{2}$ yr	3 p	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr	3 p	$\frac{1}{2}$ yr	3 p
	<u>20 p</u>		<u>20 p</u>		<u>20 p</u>		<u>20 p</u>

And third, they subscribed to the doctrine of mental discipline.

They (the subjects) would all be used for training the powers of observation, memory, expression, and reasoning; and they would all be good to that end, although differing among themselves in quality and substance . . . on the theory that all the subjects are to be considered equivalent in educational rank for the purposes of admission to college, it would make no difference which subjects he had chosen from the programme—he would have had four years of strong and effective mental training.⁴

For many years, secondary schools, public and private, organized their courses and curricula to conform to the recommendations of the Committee. With all the criticism that we might direct at their findings and suggestions, we must remember that they did bring some order out of the chaos of which they were so painfully aware, and some semblance of order was what the schools were looking for. Up to this time each one had been going along at his own sweet will, but, when pupils transferred from one school to another, and when they had to meet certain college entrance requirements they encountered repetitions, or overlapping, and absolute gaps. So the Committee proposed these four curricula.

The Committee

affirm explicitly their unanimous opinion that, under existing conditions in the United States as to the training of teachers and the provision of necessary means of instruction, the two programmes called respectively Modern Languages and English must in practice be distinctly inferior to the other two.⁵

We find this statement with regard to the practical arts:

"The industrial and commercial subjects do not appear in these programmes; but bookkeeping and commercial arithmetic are provided for by the option for algebra designated in Table III² and if it were desired

² Not reproduced here.

to provide more amply for subjects thought to have practical importance in trade or the useful arts, it would be easy to provide options in such subjects for some of the science contained in the third and fourth years of the "English" programme.⁶

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 52, 53.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 48.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 50.

In the four programs, or curricula, as we would call them today, we note that the following subjects were required of all pupils: some foreign language, English, algebra, geometry, one year of history, which was ancient, physical geography, physics, advanced algebra and solid geometry, trigonometry, higher algebra, and chemistry. *Just see the emphasis on foreign language and mathematics.* They were the backbone of any education that amounted to anything. Without them it just wasn't worth the time spent. Another point is the number of periods allotted to the various subjects. In order to embrace all the subjects represented by the "vested interests" of the nine groups and to keep the total to twenty, they had to divide them up into 2, 3, 4, and 5 periods per week, with the major assignment given over to foreign languages and mathematics.

And so the Committee of Ten passed on its report as its bequest to schools that were uncertain about their own programs. No one had risen, as yet, to challenge the doctrine of formal discipline, the rock upon which the report was builded. All schoolmen, then, with a few exceptions, accepted the recommendation at face value. Out of chaos, thought they, had come order, and so they were willing to adjust their own programs to the new proposals. When we analyze the offerings in today's schools, we find their allocation pretty much as they were fixed in this report. We also see the tendency to emphasize the 4 and 5 period a week time division. It was the forerunner of what we now call the unit system of credits.

The Committee on College Entrance Requirements

This second committee was also appointed by the National Education Association. Its appointment was made in 1895. It made its report in 1899. In fact, the reason for its appointment was "to promote the introduction of the programs recommended by the Committee of Ten." But isn't it interesting to see that the attention is directed toward adjusting the relations between secondary and higher schools? That gives us as clear an idea as we would care to have of the emphasis that motivated secondary and higher education at the turn of the century. The Committee adopted 14 resolutions, the more important of which we shall summarize. The principle of election was recognized. Requirements for entrance to technical schools should be as thorough as those to regular colleges.

Secondary school teachers should be college graduates. The high school should begin with the seventh grade and have a unified 6-year program. Unlimited election was frowned upon; there should be constants in all secondary schools, the recommended ones being 4 units in foreign languages (no language accepted in less than 2 units), 2 units in mathematics, 2 in English, 1 in history, and 1 in science. Credit for work done in secondary school, over and above that required for college entrance, should be given in college. Sequential courses in college science should be provided for those who had had a year of the science in secondary school. Gifted pupils should be allowed to finish their secondary school course in less than the regular time required by most pupils. Any subject recommended by the committee carried on 4 periods a week for a full year in a good school should count toward college admission.

We have in this report the first use, so far as we know, of the term "unit," as well as a definition of what it might encompass in each subject field. Since this is the earliest use of the term, it might be well for us to get the committee's viewpoint.

Absolute uniformity in our secondary education thruout (sic) the country . . . is so improbable that it is a waste of time to discuss the question as to whether it is desirable or not. The committee believes it is not desirable, but it is also of the opinion that uniformity is possible, practicable, and desirable in certain features of secondary work, and that, therefore, the proper course to pursue is one that will leave sufficient scope for individuality, in the field where individuality rightly has most play. The committee aims to secure uniformity in that part of the field in which uniformity is most desirable . . . There seems to be no need for uniformity in curriculum, and no possibility of it, but there does seem to be a great need for uniformity in courses of study. . . . The course of study is the unit out of which curriculums and programs are framed . . . The committee has devoted its chief energies . . . to securing the formulation of satisfactory courses of study which should serve as units, or norms, worthy of national acceptance. . . .

If colleges and schools were able, generally, to accept these courses, the statement of entrance requirements would be extremely simple and perfectly intelligible. That such a general acceptance of these courses may not unreasonably be anticipated is shown from the experience with the English requirements for college entrance, which have within a few years, without any external oppression or authority, become practically uniform thruout the country, simply by reason of the formulation by a reputable

body of experts of a definite course of work. . . . A college may recognize more or fewer of these units, but where it recognizes a subject at all, it is to be hoped that it will recognize it in the shape of the national unit.⁷

The various subject-matter committees made their reports and stated in very specific terms just what should be expected of a pupil for each term or semester the class would meet. In English, for example, literature was separated from composition, so far as directions were concerned, but the two were taught each semester. A list of reading selections was proposed for each of the four years, but those required for college entrance were specially designated. The naming and placement of these literary selections exerted a lasting influence on subsequent courses of study.

An example of the brief specificity by which the Committee sought to carry out its instructions to implement the report of the Committee of Ten is found in the recommendations for the content of the Greek course of study.

GREEK

Five periods weekly thruout the three years.

First Year

First and Second term: Introductory lessons.

Third term: Xenophon's *Anabasis* (20 to 30 pages).

Practice in reading at sight and in writing Greek.

Systematic study of grammar begun.

Second Year

Xenophon's *Anabasis* (continued) either alone or with other Attic prose (75 to 120 pages).

Practice in reading at sight, systematic study of grammar, thoro grammatical review, and practice in writing Greek, both based on study of Books I and II of the *Anabasis*.

Third Year

Homer (2,500 to 4,000 lines) e.g., *Iliad* I-III (omitting II, 491-end), and VI-VIII.

Attic prose (33 to 40 pages) with practice in writing Greek; grammar; practice in reading at sight.⁸

⁷ Report of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, Proceedings of the National Education Association. Washington, D C., 1899, passim, pp. 670-673.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 689.

We can conclude that this Committee sincerely tried to carry out its function of promoting the program recommended by the Committee of Ten, because it actually gave specific outlines and suggestions for the content of secondary school subjects. To this extent it did bring order out of chaos. Some of its proposals sound very modern to us, especially those concerning elasticity in the school program, the elective system, the education of gifted pupils, the creation of a special science course in colleges for those who had studied it in secondary school, and college credit for work done over and above that required for high school graduation. The greatest contribution, however, was the proposal for national norms in the form of units and in terms of the suggested content for each of the outlined subjects. This suggestion was taken up, as we shall see, by subsequent bodies and then fashioned into acceptable terminology.

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching

This terminology was further developed by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, organized and endowed by Andrew Carnegie in 1905, and functioning in 1906. One of the topics dealt with in the first annual report of the president was on educational standards. It is clear that, if an organization was planning to pay pensions to retired college and university professors, it must have some standard or standards by which to decide whether or not a certain high institution was eligible for such largesse. So, one of the first things the Foundation had to do was to define a college.

An institution to be ranked as a college must have at least six (6) professors giving their entire time to college and university work, a course of full four years in liberal arts and sciences, and should require for admission not less than the usual four years of academic or high school preparation, or its equivalent, in addition to the preacademic or grammar school studies.⁹

The next thing was to pass upon what was meant by "four years of academic or high school preparation." The committee referred to the work of college entrance examination boards that were following the plan put forward by the Committee on College Entrance Requirements.

⁹ First Annual Report of the President, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, New York, 1906, pp. 37-39.

By this plan college entrance requirements are designated in terms of units, a unit being a course of five periods weekly throughout an academic year of the preparatory school. The units in each branch of academic study have also been quantitatively defined, the aim being to assign values to the subjects in accordance with the time usually required to prepare adequately upon them for college entrance. Plane geometry, studied two periods weekly throughout an academic year, would be counted as two-fifths of a unit and not as one unit. Fourteen units constitute the minimum of preparation which may be interpreted as four years of academic or high school preparation.¹⁰

The report then proceeded to assign unit values to the subjects as outlined by the Committee on College Entrance Requirements and by the College Entrance Examination Board and appraise them for full units, if taught a full year, and half units, if taught a half year.

In 1909, the fourth annual report of the president discussed the use and limitations of a standard unit in secondary education.

The unit used by the Carnegie Foundation¹¹ aims to be . . . a symbol as between colleges, whether state or endowed institutions, and high schools, private or public. It is not mere mechanical standardization. It involves no limitation upon the secondary school or the college. It is simply the effort to find a "counter" for the very relation between secondary school and college which the tendencies of the last twenty-five years have been engaged in formulating. It is clear that the use of some such unit or counter is an almost inevitable consequence of the acceptance of the four-year high school as a basis of preparation for college.

In whatever way it is approached the fact remains that the basis of the college preparation rests upon some fifteen units¹² of study, and that any rigidity or mechanical standardization which ensues will arise out of the requirements of the colleges with respect to prescribed subjects for admission, not out of the above fundamental fact. The studies of the secondary school are divided among a number of subjects. For example, three units of work may be given to mathematics, three to English, four to Latin, two to a modern language, one to history and economics, and the like. This is only another way of saying that a student pursuing such a

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

¹¹ This wording is undoubtedly responsible for its being called the Carnegie Unit.

¹² This is a change from the fourteen units of the 1906 report.

course studies mathematics for three years, English for three years, Latin for four years, modern language for two years, and the like.

The practical question, therefore, is to choose such a unit as will fairly represent the secondary school whether the school be in one section of the country or another. Such a unit enables the college to compare secondary schools, but it in no way hampers either the college or the secondary school. Its use will simply express uniformly and concretely that which is not expressed under many notations, a fact which renders difficult the comparison of one secondary school with another.

Then came the definition which has had such a widespread and remarkable influence on secondary education even today.

A unit represents a year's study in any subject in a secondary school, constituting approximately a quarter of a full year's work. (This statement is designed to afford a standard of measurement for the work done in the secondary schools. It takes the four-year high school course as a basis and assumes that the length of the school year is from thirty-six to forty weeks, that a period is from forty to sixty minutes in length, and that the study is pursued for four or five periods a week; but, under ordinary circumstances, a satisfactory year's work in any subject cannot be accomplished in less than one hundred and twenty 60-minute hours, or their equivalent. Schools organized on a different basis can nevertheless estimate their work in terms of this unit.)¹³

The College Entrance Examination Board

Another group that was working on this same problem at the same time was the College Entrance Examination Board, organized in 1901 to bring about unification of college entrance examinations. If its chief objective was to do that job, then it had to suggest ways of prescribing the content of any subject in which an examination was to be offered and taken, so that examinees might know what preparation to make. At first, it depended upon the various learned societies to specify the year's content of any subject. Then, in 1909, in the ninth annual report of the secretary, the announcement was made "of the endorsement by the Board of the scale of values of college entrance requirements as adopted by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The value of each requirement is expressed in terms of a unit representing one year's work

¹³ Fourth Annual Report of the President, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, New York, 1909, pp. 131-133.

in a secondary school, with four or five periods a week." Document 44, December 1, 1909, states for the first time the definition of the unit that is to be observed by the Board. It is in the identical phraseology and wording of the 1909 pronouncement of the Carnegie Foundation. Following the definition there is this statement: "From this time on, in the appropriate publications of the Board, there is attached to each requirement its value in units, based on the scale of values adopted by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching." In 1914 the following sentence was added to the definition: "A four year secondary school curriculum should be regarded as representing not more than sixteen units of work."¹⁴

Committee on Economy of Time in Education

A third group paralleling the labors of the last two was the Committee of the National Council of Education on Economy of Time in Education, which was appointed in 1905, and which made its main report at San Francisco in 1911. For its motivation we must refer again to the Committee of Ten and the suggestion that work of a secondary school nature might well be begun in the seventh grade. The Committee on Economy of Time endeavored to develop a program that would actually shorten the period of schooling by as much as 2 years. In support of their stand they looked to the schools of France and Germany where youth began their university training, i.e., graduate work, at an age when ours were just finishing high school. Although they said quite a bit about vocational education, it wasn't difficult to see that what they were largely concerned with was earlier entrance to college. These were their chief arguments.

1. The period of general education must be shortened in order that the vocational training—that of the graduate and professional schools—may fall within the period of greatest energy and adaptability.

2. There is loss of interest and energy in a long preparatory period of unmaturation study.

3. The fundamentals of elementary education—facts, habits, dexterities, sentiments, etc.—can be taught in six school years.

4. At the end of the first six years of school the child requires new and

¹⁴ Nicholas Murray Butler, *The Work of the College Entrance Examination Board 1901-1925*, Ginn & Co., Boston, 1926, pp. 112-13, 138.

varied interests, beyond those found in the elementary curriculum. Many believe that for physiological, as well as psychological, reasons a beginning in subjects and methods of secondary education should be made earlier.

5. By a division of the six-year school into two periods, junior and senior, a large number would complete the first period; the plan would be adapted to an advanced grade of vocational school between 15 or 16 and 18 for pupils unable to continue a general course. The whole scheme would then provide for vocational lines of work beginning at 12, 15 or 16, 18 and 20.

6. For economy, subject matter should be a means and not an end. The aim should be to gain a few fundamental facts, power and inspiration, and the ability to go alone.

The Committee proposed the following time schedule:

Elementary education	6 to 12 years of age
Secondary (2 divisions—4 years and 2 years)	12 to 18 years of age
College	18 to 20 or 16 to 20 years of age
University (graduate school and professional school)	20 to 24 years

Their recommendations for the various levels are herewith presented. In elementary education

Choose the most important subjects and the most important topics; make a distinction between first-rate facts and principles and tenth-rate; prime thoroughly, stick to the elements of the subject; do not try to teach everything that is good; confine the period of elementary education to mastering the tools of education. . . . In the elementary school period literature, history, science should be inspirational; this does not mean presentation to pupils of amusing stuff. *No doctrine has been more harmful than that one subject of study is as good as another and that all should be taught alike,*¹⁵ arithmetic is a tool and a discipline in absolute accuracy; literature, history, and elementary science in this period are for culture. Include the last years of the elementary school in the period of secondary education and begin the study of foreign language, history two years earlier.

In the high school

Simplify the courses of instruction; cease multiplying subjects; concentrate on a few valuable studies—it is not necessary to take all the sciences in high school; make college entrance requirements reasonable. *The great*

¹⁵ *Italics mine.*

*mistake of our education is to suppose that quantity and strain constitute education.*¹⁶ Education is a question of doing a few essential things well and without overstrain. The college has committed a grievous mistake in demanding ever more in quantity rather than in quality produced under conditions of healthy normal development. . . . The principle of selection obtains here—choice of subjects and of facts and principles under each subject; also differentiation of method—training from formal subjects, and knowledge and inspiration from certain content subjects.

As to higher education,

We may define the standard American university to be an institution which offers a further course of two years so arranged that the student may begin work of university character leading to the bachelor's degree at the end, and reaching forward to the continuation of this work in the graduate school or the professional school.¹⁷

The idea then was to eliminate nonessentials, both in subjects and in the content of those retained, to do a little well rather than a great variety superficially, to differentiate between drill subjects and inspirational subjects, to begin secondary education two years earlier, emphasize its general education aspects and continue it into the first 2 years of college, and begin regular university or specialized training the succeeding year. The Committee took a firm stand on the junior high school and junior college methods of reorganizing secondary education.

One of its most interesting pronouncements was that which had to do with methods of teaching. There just wasn't one method to teach all subjects. One is led to wonder at the position of progressive educationists who advocate the project method for all elementary school subjects.

Committee of Nine on the Articulation of High School and College

The next group to turn its hands to clarifying the still cloudy issues of secondary education was the Committee of Nine on the Articulation of High School and College, appointed by the National Education Association in 1910. Its membership comprised 5 secondary school principals, 1 superintendent of schools, 2 college men,

¹⁶ Italics mine.

¹⁷ Report of the Committee on Economy of Time in Education, U.S. Bureau of Education, Bull. 1913, No. 38, Washington, D.C., pp. 15, 16, 18, 19.

and the deputy commissioner of education of Massachusetts. Colleges had been determining the curricula of secondary schools by setting up units of entrance requirements in terms of the subjects which they, the colleges, favored. The Committee of Nine believed that every pupil, no matter what his destination, should study certain common elements in the form of subjects, but the Committee did object to the colleges being the ones who were to decide what these common elements should be. A phase of education that was practically overlooked by the colleges was that connected with mechanic arts, agriculture, and household science; and the utter absurdity of sanctioning high school curricula for girls that disregarded the fundamental problems of home management was severely disparaged.

The Committee defined a well-planned high school course as follows:

We believe that fifteen units is a better requirement than sixteen units, because quantity should be subordinated to quality; overstrain should be eliminated from the atmosphere of the school, there should be one unit leeway, inasmuch as failure in one unit in one year should neither cost the student an extra year nor tempt the principal to permit such student to try to carry an extra unit the succeeding year; students of exceptional ability should be permitted to earn five units a year, thereby shortening the high school period by one year; students poor in ability should be required to spend five years upon the course, attempting performing three units each year, thereby diminishing failures and reducing excessive per capita cost of instruction. Where fifteen units is (sic) adopted as the required number, it would seem reasonable that physical training and chorus should not be counted toward the fifteen units.

Every high school course should include at least three units of English, one unit of social science (including history), and one unit of natural science.

Every high school course should include the completion of two majors of three units each and one minor of two units, and one of the majors should be English.

The requirements in mathematics and in foreign languages should not exceed two units of mathematics and two units of one language other than English.

Of the total fifteen units, not less than eleven units should consist of English, foreign language, mathematics, social science (including his-

tory), natural science, or other work conducted by recitation and home study. The other four units should be left as a margin to be used for additional academic work, and any other kind of work that the best interests of the student appear to require.

In place of either two units of mathematics or two units of a foreign language, the substitution under proper supervision should be allowed of a second unit of social science (including history) and a second unit of natural science.

In other words there should be allowed under proper supervision the selection of four units from the following:

- (1) Two units of one foreign language.
- (2) Two units of mathematics.
- (3) Two units of a second unit of social science and a second unit of natural science.

According to this provision it would be possible under proper supervision to substitute the work in columns (B) or (C) for the work in column (A).

	(A)	(B)	(C)
English	3	3	3
Foreign Language	2	2	0
Mathematics	2	0	2
Social Science	1	2	2
Natural Science	1	2	2
Total Specified	9	9	9
To which must be added another major	$\frac{1 \text{ or } 2}{10 \text{ or } 11}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$

Consequently, the student without mathematics must present three units in two subjects and two units in the remaining two subjects, thereby demonstrating ability in four lines of work.¹⁸

The same would be true of a foreign language.

The report ended with a recommendation that the colleges make special provision to admit and care for those who did not present either mathematics or a foreign language for entrance.

This report practically crystallized the movement for uniformity that had been initiated by the Committee of Ten. We have seen how it gathered strength and took on form with the manifestos of

¹⁸ "Committee of Nine on the Articulation of High School and College," *Proceedings of the National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1911*, pp. 559-67.

Commission reports tried to do was to give form and substance to the philosophy of equal opportunity for democracy's children. If they finally went to college, well and good. The present job, however, was, as long as they were in school, to prepare them to meet the duties that they were facing and would soon face. These duties were the seven objectives.

The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education gave the impetus to other groups, so that from that date on we find ourselves in a welter of curriculum tinkers and syllabus spawners. This statement is not meant to disparage the well-meaning efforts of these groups, but it does indicate an absence of unstinted praise for all that has been done. When democracy in education became the watchword, it unloosed the floodgates of conservative and radical thinking. Everyone who had an idea, good or bad, wanted to get it copyrighted in some report and publication. Naturally, all these ideas couldn't be equally good, even though their sponsors were sincere. That is, most of them. For if ever a crackpot had his opportunity it has been in the last quarter of a century. If he couldn't get a national hearing, he made himself vocal and scriptural within his own state or local school system.

Groups that have been and are especially interested in the development of the secondary school are the American Association of School Administrators,²² the National Society for the Study of Education, the National Education Association—Department of Secondary Teachers, the Progressive Education Association, the Society for Curriculum Study, and the regional accrediting agencies.

The National Survey on Secondary Education

Although all these groups were working more or less constantly on secondary school issues, 20 years passed before a report of national significance again took the spotlight. In 1932 the *National Survey on Secondary Education* was published as a series of bulletins under the auspices of the Office of Education.²³ The survey was authorized by an Act of Congress in February, 1929, to make a study

²² Formerly the Department of Superintendence, whose fifth and sixth year-books, 1915 and 1916, dealt with the junior and senior high school curriculums, respectively.

²³ Bull. 1932, No. 17, Monographs 1-23.

"of the organization, administration, financing, and work of secondary schools and of their articulation with elementary and higher education." The survey committee spent three years and \$225,000, but has probably made less impact upon school practice than any effort of like or less magnitude. Why this is so is hard to explain, but such is the general impression that prevails. Even so, we cannot dismiss lightly the outcomes of the study. So we shall quote the summaries, with the added caution, that "such brief statements must be read with the understanding that many are hedged about in the complete reports with qualifications that at times alter meanings substantially."⁴

1. The proportion of the population of high school age represented by the enrollment in public high schools in 1930 had reached 46.6 per cent. With pupils in private secondary schools added this proportion was well over half of the population of these ages. The proportion varies from State to State and is greater in urban than in rural communities, and city systems can be found in which well nigh all pupils of high school age are in school.

2. Information concerning the socioeconomic status and measures of intelligence of pupils in specialized curriculums of a vocational character indicate that such curriculums are means of democratization of secondary education. This is true whether the curriculums are provided in comprehensive or in specialized schools.

3. Continuation schools and classes and evening high schools are further means of democratization of education at the secondary level.

4. By 1930 reorganized schools included approximately a fourth of all public secondary schools and enrolled almost a third of all pupils in grades 7, 8, and 9.

5. Up to enrollments of 2000 and with the factor of size controlled in the comparisons made, 6-year high schools, undivided or on a 3-3 basis, were found to be superior in organization to separate junior and senior high schools. Among very small schools size of enrollment is a more important factor of superiority than reorganization.

6. By 1931 the number of junior colleges of all types was rapidly approaching 500. The total enrollment was rapidly mounting toward 100,000.

7. Special reorganizations of school systems of an experimental character involving the junior college were aiming chiefly either at the saving of time or at the integration of junior college with high school years.

⁴*Ibid.*, Monograph 1, page 1.

each succeeding committee. A thrust in this direction, an advance in that, and finally a frontal assault brought us to the point of establishing a *sine qua non* of general education. Of course, as we shall discover later, some modifications have been made, but, in the main, the plan presented by the Committee of Nine has for three decades set the pattern for state and school graduation requirements in secondary education.

But there was need of further elucidation of the Committee's stand on the question of having the colleges accept as satisfying entrance requirements the recommended requirements for high school graduation. Remember, it had, until then, been the other way around. The colleges had been importuning the secondary schools to make college entrance requirements the requirements for graduation from high school. The changing point of view was reversing this attitude. We can, then, give the Committee on Articulation credit for emphasizing the democratization of the American secondary school.

Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education

In order to make more real to secondary school people the implications of the above report, the National Education Association immediately appointed a committee to do for the Committee of Nine report what the Committee on College Entrance Requirements had done for the Committee of Ten report. This committee was called the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education and was headed by Clarence D. Kingsley, state high school supervisor of Massachusetts. The other nine members were all directly connected with secondary education. In other words, the members of the directing committee were, every one of them, specialists in education. The Commission issued its own report in 1918. The subject-matter subcommittees published their reports from 1913 to 1922. Since they were so directly concerned with the "new" secondary school, we can say, without fear of much contradiction, that they really did bring some light to a much befuddled body of school people.

The report that summarized the recommendations of the Commission is called *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*.¹⁹ The

¹⁹ *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, Bull. 35, Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C., 1918.

Commission felt that there was definite need for a reorganization of secondary education because of changes taking place in society, in the secondary school population, and in educational theory. High above all other evolving concepts was the one that concerned the meaning of democracy.

The purpose of democracy is so to organize society that each member may develop his personality through activities designed for the well-being of his fellow members and of society as a whole. Education in a democracy, both within and without the school, should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends.²⁰

Up to this time we have read and heard much about the secondary school as an adjunct of the college. The Committee of Nine was departing from this position, but it remained for the Commission on Reorganization to approach the problem from another angle.

In order to determine the main objectives that should guide education in a democracy it is necessary to analyze the activities of the individual. Normally, he is a member of a family, of a vocational group, and of various civic groups. Aside from the immediate discharge of these specific duties, every individual should have a margin of time for the cultivation of personal and social interests. To discharge the duties of life and to benefit from leisure, one must have good health. There are various processes, such as reading, writing, arithmetical computations, and oral and written expression, that are needed as tools in the affairs of life. And, finally, the realization of the objectives already named is dependent upon ethical character, that is, upon conduct founded upon right principles, clearly perceived and loyally adhered to.

This commission, therefore, regards the following as the main objectives of education: 1. Health 2. Command of fundamental processes 3. Worthy home-membership 4. Vocation 5. Citizenship 6. Worthy use of leisure 7. Ethical character.²¹

So were born the seven cardinal objectives of secondary education. They formed the background for the content and organization of the subject-matter reports and for the many courses of study, state and local, developed in the subsequent two decades. What the

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 9-11. Note the use of the term "objectives."

Commission reports tried to do was to give form and substance to the philosophy of equal opportunity for democracy's children. If they finally went to college, well and good. The present job, however, was, as long as they were in school, to prepare them to meet the duties that they were facing and would soon face. These duties were the seven objectives.

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6. By 1931 the number of junior colleges of all types was rapidly approaching 500. The total enrollment was rapidly mounting toward 100,000.

7. Special reorganizations of school systems of an experimental character involving the junior college were aiming chiefly either at the saving of time or at the integration of junior college with high school years.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, Monograph 1, page 1.

8. One major implication of a large-scale comparison of selected small high schools with unselected small high schools is that it is possible to make the unselected schools better than they are. One of the most important factors is better administrative leadership within the schools.

9. Another major implication of the same study is that size of enrollment is more influential than selection in making for a good school. *This implication is a powerful argument against the encouragement of very small schools.*²⁵

10. The number of public secondary schools for Negroes in the States providing separate schools for the two races has increased with astonishing rapidity during the past 15 to 20 years. However, there is still a great lack of high school facilities for Negroes in many areas in these States.

11. The efforts to provide opportunities for public secondary education in this country have resulted in a great complexity of district and other arrangements not only for the country as a whole but within most States. Progress toward simpler and more effective arrangement is highly desirable.

12. An investigation of districts and schools in certain counties in California yields the recommendation of a larger district, the "superintendence area," in control of schools extending from the kindergarten through the junior college.

13. A study of State control of secondary schools concludes that fewer statutory prescriptions accompanied by extension of discretionary powers in State school officials would permit the development of more flexible and adaptable programs in the administration of secondary education.

14. The trend in higher institutions has been to increase the number of ways by which students may gain admission.

15. Improvement in the articulation of high school and college is being effected by much greater attention in higher institutions to the problem of securing favorable adjustment of new students to college life and work.

16. The Survey reveals an increase in the professional education of the members of administrative and supervisory staffs of secondary schools as compared with the situation in this regard disclosed by studies made only a few years ago.

17. In outstanding schools today the supervisor is recognized as a leader, a formulator, an adviser, a consultant, a helper, but never as a perfunctory inspector. The relationship between the supervisor and the supervised is democratic and cooperative.

18. No essential distinctions are found in the procedures followed in

²⁵ Italics mine.

the selection and appointment of teachers to elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school positions.

19. Homogeneous grouping, special classes for the gifted and for the slow, and plans characterized by the unit assignment were found to be the three core elements in a typically successful program to provide for individual differences.

20. Great confusion of terminology exists in the plans characterized by the unit assignment. In practice, a number of widely discussed plans, techniques, and procedures characterized by the unit assignment are essentially one and the same thing. These procedures are variously known as the project method, the problem method, differentiated assignments, long-unit assignments, contract plan, laboratory plan, individualized instruction, Winnetka technique, Dalton plan, Morrison plan, or a modification of the last three.

21. Four types of organization for guidance were distinguished; namely, (1) the central guidance bureau in city school systems without extensive development of the organization for guidance service within individual secondary schools; (2) the central guidance organization in a city system with development of the program of guidance within the individual secondary school as the unit; (3) centralized organization for guidance within individual schools and with special guidance functionaries; and (4) organization of guidance in individual schools utilizing regular officers and teachers as guidance functionaries.

22. Few bureaus of educational research are found within individual secondary schools, and almost all the educational research carried on at the secondary level within schools and systems is the work of the bureaus of research of the city school systems.

23. Investigation shows that nearly half of a selected group of schools are carrying out permanent continuing programs of school publicity. These programs aim to interpret the schools (1) to pupils, (2) to teachers and other school employees, and (3) to the public.

24. On the basis of provisions and practices in schools with outstanding library service, the prediction is warranted that the library will soon be one of the central features of the modern secondary school.

25. The proportions of pupils making all possible uses of the library are greater in schools in which library and study hall are combined than in schools in which they are separate.

26. In appraising the programs of curriculum revision school authorities express the belief that the professional growth of the teachers participating is the greatest benefit derived.

27. Consideration of the trends in the curriculum of the secondary

school leads to the conclusion that advocates of curriculum reform would typically approve the *scope* and *direction* of the changes made, but would be impatient with the *rate* of change.

28. Offerings show a marked tendency at the junior high school level toward general courses and away from courses in specialized aspects of the different subject groups. This tendency is illustrated in the increase of courses in general mathematics and the decrease in courses designated as arithmetic or algebra. Other academic subject groups notably affected by the tendency are English, the social studies, and science. The senior high school is less affected than the junior high school by this trend.

29. Courses in modern foreign languages have been much influenced by the advocacy in the modern language study of the objective of ability in reading the foreign language. The courses in Latin show the influence of the classical investigation in recommending the postponement of the reading of the first classical author to the fourth semester and a redistribution of emphasis in the study of grammar and syntax.

30. The offering in music has been rapidly widened beyond sight-singing to include choruses, glee clubs, bands, orchestras, individual instruction, and courses in theory and appreciation, creativeness and self-expression.

31. Fully seven-tenths of a group of secondary schools which were studied participated in interscholastic nonathletic contests. These contests have been extended to include an exceedingly wide variety of interests and activities.

32. An outstanding trend among schools selected for the merit of their programs of health work and physical education is the policy of uniting under a single administrative head all the physical activities fostered. These include health work, physical education, intramural athletics, and interscholastic athletics.

Probably the summary statements tell the story as to the possible ineffectiveness of the Survey. We must keep in mind that this was a survey, i.e., a study of the *status quo*, or trends, and of best practices. So far so good. But that's what the Committee of Ten thought it had done, although on a decidedly smaller scale. The difference is that the Committee of Ten did not stop at that point. What it really did do, and what made its report so significant was that it issued edicts. So did the other groups we have been studying. The National Survey seemed to be satisfied to tell us, "Well, here's the story. Now what are you going to do about it?" There was nothing about the report to stir the adrenal glands to action. Its cold analy-

sis didn't produce recommendations of what the schools ought to do. Nobody got excited about anything, and that's what happened to the National Survey.

The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards

Such was not the fate of the labors of the next committee, the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. Its appointment grew out of the dissatisfaction brewing among the members of the regional accrediting associations, a dissatisfaction with the ways in which their accrediting standards were being administered. The actual steps to do something to improve accrediting procedures were taken by the Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. In April, 1933, it appointed a committee of its 20 state chairmen, who in turn, selected 5 of their number to study the situation. Instead of attacking the problem alone, this small committee invited representatives from the other accrediting agencies, and, under the sponsorship of George F. Zook, then United States Commissioner of Education, organized a national committee in August, 1933. Financial assistance was obtained from the General Education Board, and a central office was set up in Washington, D.C. For 5 years the Committee and all who cooperated with it worked on the development of techniques that would answer the following questions:

1. What are the characteristics of a good secondary school?
2. What practicable means and methods may be employed to evaluate the effectiveness of a school in terms of its objectives?
3. By what means and processes does a good school develop into a better one?
4. How can regional associations stimulate secondary schools to continuous growth?²⁴

The answers are found in the *Evaluative Criteria*, a volume that contains a detailed analysis of the manifold activities that have been found to characterize a good secondary school. The staff and administrative members make a careful study of their own school system. First they analyze the composition, statistical and cultural, of the school and its community. Then they develop a philosophy and

²⁴ *How to Evaluate a Secondary School*, Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, Washington, D.C., 1939, p. 1.

a set of objectives for the school. On these two bases they check their school against a check list of hundreds of items in the areas of curriculum, pupil activities, library, guidance, staff, administration, and plant. This job accomplished, the school invites a committee of other schoolmen to visit the school and compare its judgment on the items in the check lists with that of the teachers. All the subareas are evaluated numerically. Their numerical evaluations are statistically treated and converted into a series of bar graphs that show whether the school is superior, good, average, inferior, or very inferior on any particular area or subarea. A report is then written up in the form of a survey that points out the specific things that the school needs to do in order to make desirable improvements.

Here we find something definite, a point of departure from which the school (which means administrators, teachers, pupils, parents, and the whole community) can take steps to improve in whatever areas it is evaluated as unsatisfactory. Schools and evaluators testify that the experiences have undoubtedly been the most educative and stimulating which they have ever shared. In fact, the opinion of those who know is that the *Evaluative Criteria* is the most important contribution to secondary education in thirty years.

Commission on the Relation of School and College

The last and most recent of the groups to impinge upon the secondary school was the Commission on the Relation of School and College, appointed in 1930 by the Progressive Education Association. In effect, its work paralleled that of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. The task of the Commission was to define a good secondary school in terms of college entrance requirements and thereby obliquely discover what made a school a good one, or better, what made boys and girls good students. The challenge was met by selecting 30 representative secondary schools whose graduates were to receive permission from colleges and universities to enter without meeting the stereotyped entrance setup. These secondary school graduates were to be the guinea pigs over an 8-year period of an experiment to ascertain how successfully they would fare in college. That's why it is called the Eight-Year Study. The story has now been told in a series of volumes brought

out by Harper & Brothers in 1942. The first volume was the summary one and was entitled *Adventure in American Education*. Its author was Wilford M. Aikin, the director of the study.

In order to make valid statements and recommendations the Commission selected 1475 students, who entered college in 1936, 1937, 1938, and 1939 from the Thirty Schools, and paired them with 1475 who entered via the accustomed portals (a corresponding number for each of the four years) from other secondary schools. The pairs were to be as equivalent in social and economic background, age, sex, on test score results, type of school and community, individual interests, and futures as it was possible to make them. The study showed the following results.²⁷

The graduates of the Thirty Schools

1. earned a slightly higher total grade average;
2. earned high grade averages in all subject fields except foreign language;
3. specialized in the same academic fields as did the comparison students;
4. did not differ from the comparison group in the number of times they were placed on probation;
5. received slightly more academic honors each year;
6. were more often judged to possess a high degree of intellectual curiosity and drive;
7. were more often judged to be precise, systematic, and objective in their thinking;
8. were more often judged to have developed clear or well-formulated ideas concerning the meaning of education—especially in the first two years in college;
9. more often demonstrated a high degree of resourcefulness in meeting new situations;
10. did not differ from the comparison group in ability to plan their time effectively;
11. had about the same problems of adjustments as the comparison group, but approached the solution with greater effectiveness;
12. participated somewhat more frequently, and more often enjoyed appreciative experiences, in the arts;
13. participated more in all organized student groups except religious and "service" activities;

²⁷ Wilfred M. Aikin, *Adventure in American Education*, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942, pp. 111-112.

14. earned in college each year a higher percentage of nonacademic honors;

15. did not differ from the comparison group in the quality of adjustment to their contemporaries;

16. differed only slightly from the comparison group in the kinds of judgments about their schools;

17. had a somewhat better orientation toward the choice of a vocation; and

18. demonstrated a more active concern for what was going on in the world.

These were the conclusions:²⁸

First, the graduates of the Thirty Schools were not handicapped in their college work.

Second, departures from the prescribed patterns of subjects and units did not lessen the student's readiness for the responsibilities of college.

Third, students from the participating schools which made most fundamental curriculum revision achieved in college distinctly higher standing than that of students of equal ability with whom they were compared.

The implications were:²⁹

First, the assumption that preparation for the liberal arts college depends upon the study of certain prescribed subjects in the secondary school is no longer tenable. The conclusion must be drawn, therefore, that the assumptions upon which school and college relations have been based in the past must be abandoned. To move ahead schools must have encouragement from colleges. To give that encouragement colleges must abandon their present admissions policy. The second major implication of the results of the Eight-Year Study is that secondary schools can be trusted with a greater measure of freedom than college requirements now permit.

The results and the implications lead up inevitably to the recommendations.³⁰

First, until the purposes of general education in the liberal arts college are clearly defined and plainly stated, subject and unit prescriptions and entrance examinations that prescribe the content or organization of the secondary school curriculum should be discontinued.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 117.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 118, 119, 122, 124.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 125.

Committee on Economy of Time in Education, *Bull.* 38, Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C., 1913.

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Educational Systems in Other Countries

AGAIN, the question may well be raised, "Why should we study the school systems of countries other than our own?" Isn't it enough for us to learn what we need to know about our own schools and try to understand them, rather than to clutter up our minds with additional facts that will probably do us very little good? We have such a good system ourselves that there is probably little, if anything, that would profit us even if we did spend time on what others are doing.

Such opinions are not infrequent, but they represent an isolationist attitude. Any assumption that we ourselves are so good that others should learn from us and not we from others is chauvinistic, to say the least. If the war has taught us anything it is the utter interdependence of all parts of the world upon each other. Radio and the airplane have brought us so close together that we shall nevermore be able to keep apart. Then, too, before we express ourselves too hastily about our neighbors, let us ponder for a moment on something that we have already dealt with along this line. When we studied origins and backgrounds it was based on the claim that an intelligent American citizen needed to know those things in order to comprehend more reasonably why certain practices and traditions are carried on today. The only difference at this point is the time element. Then we studied about the past. This time it is more in the present.

But that last statement isn't quite what we want to say. The pres-

ent can be a flexible chronometer. To most of us it includes the span of our own lifetime. Anything that has happened within that period is to us the present. And that is more likely what we mean to signify when we contrast the past with the present. The past was just not contemporary; that was all.

It is true, as we shall see later, that we have not lived to ourselves alone in matters of educational theory and practice. We have found similarities and parallels to our own grammar school and academy in England and on the continent. It is not unreasonable, then, to expect to find that interchange and borrowing of ideas and practices have been the rule rather than otherwise. In other words, everything that we do has not been original with us, while some of our own innovations have been appropriated by others. In fact, some educators opine that we ought to operate more on the European plan of secondary education, which was the argument brought forward by the Committee on Elimination, in order to begin work of a university grade earlier.

But probably the most potent argument of all is that a knowledge of what other countries are doing provides us the opportunity to make comparisons and contrasts. We can view the strong and weak points of *all* systems including our own. We can better comprehend why a certain country carries on a certain procedure, which, to our way of thinking, has no sense to it. We can, above all, become sympathetic. And sympathy should bring us closer together.

Any textbook study and analysis of other school systems does encounter some difficulties. Contemporary education, in spite of the hold of tradition, is in a fluid state. Governments are always enacting statutes that modify the *status quo* so that the printed account doesn't synchronize in all respects with coexisting procedures. That, however, should be no reason for deterring us from setting forth conditions as they are at any particular moment. We can always add to our information by consulting the files of current magazines and newspapers.

In a treatise that deals in detail with the various aspects and phases of a school system it is possible to present an accurate picture of the whole thing. But when all the facts have to be condensed into small compass, the best that can be done is to offer what might be called a stereotype. This means that we have time

and space to portray only the more outstanding and so-called characteristic features of the school system of any one country. A more thorough appreciation of what goes on will have to be obtained from a more careful and elaborate investigation by those who wish to become better informed.

And so, with some hesitation, we embark upon our project of describing to you the school systems of England, France, Germany, and Russia, which are unique in that they have individualities of their own that have served as models to the rest of the world.

We can approach the problem of presentation in two ways. We can treat each country in turn under a set of rubrics, or we can take each country separately and discuss the topics in connection with it, the country. On the chance that you will find it easier to identify the various practices of a country as a unit we shall follow the second plan. For each country, then, we shall try to present the distinctive characteristics under the following headings: national and local control, financial support, relation to social and political setup, purposes, types of secondary schools, essential differences between these schools, curricular offerings, status of coeducation and education for girls, relationship to what we call elementary education, and provisions made for vocational education. We shall begin with England.

ENGLAND

When we speak of the English secondary school system, we refer to what we find in England and Wales. Scotland and the Irish Free State have their own types of organization. Since England is the dominant member of the group, since she has carried the influence of her educational theories and practices to the far corners of the earth, and since we ourselves owe such a debt to England for the Latin grammar school and the academy, it is only natural that we include a study of her school system in any discussion of education in other countries.

It is an observed truism that tradition exerts a stronger hold upon the conduct of a people, the older the civilization of any nation becomes. You have only to look back upon the communities from which you have come to realize the part that tradition plays. The more age they claim, the greater the tendency to keep on doing

things as they have been done. If life proceeds at a fairly even pace, with no disturbing influences to challenge its routines, the institutions that belong to the community continue to follow the pattern that was set many years ago. It takes a revolution or an earthquake of some sort to shake tradition out of its lethargy.

That's the way it was with England. For centuries she had assumed that the grammar school type of education, whose goals were to produce the perfect English gentleman and get him ready for the university, was all that she needed in the way of a secondary school. It is true that some modifications were introduced as time went on, but they were not sufficiently different to change the overall pattern. It took a cataclysm, such as that of World War II, to produce profound changes in the English system of education, which for centuries had occupied a place in the minds of the English public corresponding to that of the more exclusive academies in our country.

One plausible explanation for the persistence of the English tradition was that practically all the members of the House of Lords had had their secondary education in an exclusive type of secondary school. They had been able to preserve and maintain a hands-off policy with respect to their own schools, so that England had never been able to organize its schools on a national or federal basis. Consequently, there were "controlled" and "noncontrolled" schools, the former coming more or less under the authority of the National Board of Education, and the latter group being independent of such authority.

Our discussion of the English secondary school system will center around the situation as it was before 1944, and what it has been since that date. The year 1944 is selected because it was then that the monumental reform in the organization of England's whole educational system was enacted into law by Parliament.

Control Prior to 1944

There was a National Board of Education, whose President was a member of the Prime Minister's cabinet. Membership of others on the Board was, more or less, an honorary matter, since the Board, as such, did not meet to decide upon matters of educational import. The President was the one who was held responsible for whatever

work was done through committees, whose business it was to make the necessary investigations, reports, and advisements. One of the Board's most important functions was to give grants to those secondary schools that held places open to scholarship students. For a school to qualify to receive financial grants it had to comply with the regulations of the Board anent building, equipment, and subject offerings. There were inspectors whose duty it was to visit grant-aided schools and report on them to the board. Even so, a great deal of autonomy was left in the hands of the L.E.A., or Local Education Authority. The Board had nothing to do with the independent, private schools. They had their own associations which met and formulated policies and plans of action.

Purposes

When we come to describe the purposes that governed the thinking with respect to English secondary schools for so many generations, we must resort to a stereotype, for it is the stereotype that has fastened itself upon the imagination of all of us when we think of England. Lord Nash "rose, walked to the sideboard, drained a dipper full of gin and bitters and became again a high-bred English gentleman."¹

The aim of the public² school is "character building" and the creation of an annual supply of young men imbued with a standard of behavior and predilections called "good form," which will ensure enough similarity of tastes, interests, and prejudices to make a certain comradeship and good fellowship easily attainable. This is not only desirable for smooth collaboration, it is very essential for obtaining a governing class of sufficient cohesion.

Obviously this standard of "good form" must not be pegged so high as to make the number of those attaining it unduly restricted. Several thousand of the finished product are needed every year, and if we set our aim too high we should fail to produce the full quota of the article specified. Therefore, the standard of intellectual interests was not set too high. It was not long before a defense of this policy became articulate.

Up to a certain point, ran the argument, a man may enjoy using his

¹ Stephen Leacock, *Nomense Novels*, John Love Company, London, 1914, p. 70.

² The term "public" school refers to the great private schools, for which England has been so famous.

brains; he may get some fun out of scholarly, intellectual, or speculative pursuits; but beyond that point he becomes a suspect, a highbrow, and may even be considered to have a "funny" streak in him. He does not conform to the sample.

For the English parent or for the English public at large "the best type of Englishman" to which everybody strove to conform was the "gentleman," the man of character, decent, fair-minded, but without any pretensions to any singular and outstanding capacity in any particular direction. It is not entirely due to P. G. Wodehouse that Bertie Wooster would be recognized everywhere as an English type.³

In quoting these two descriptions, we are borrowing the words of Englishmen themselves, one who sees the portrait humorously, the other seriously. They were speaking of the products of what the British refer to as secondary education, a very selective affair with them. We shall see, later, how the war has effected a change in this attitude.

Types of Secondary Schools

The most outstanding and well-known of English grammar schools are the nine great public schools: Eton, Harrow, Rugby, Westminster, Merchant Taylor's, Charterhouse, St. Pauls, Shrewsbury, and Winchester. Once upon a time, in the early days of these schools, it was the intent to have them public by admitting both free and some paying pupils. This practice gave the name "public" to these schools. But gradually the paying pupils increased in such numbers that they finally elbowed out the free pupils entirely. Nevertheless, the name "public" still clings to them. The most recent of these schools dates back to 1611, the earliest to 1382.

There are a good many other schools of a similar type and most excellent in all respects, but they do not have the hoary air of antiquity to bring them within the select group. It is something like the fraternity system on our college campuses, where we find that the older fraternities hold a higher place in the estimation of the campus politicians and social climbers.

Secondary schools were classified as: boarding schools; day

³ *London Times Educational Supplement*, March 14, 1942, and March 21, 1942.

schools; a combination of both; privately endowed schools; council schools; boys' schools; girls' schools; coeducational schools; and private venture schools. Boarding schools are like Groton and Lawrenceville in this country, day schools are like our country day schools, and combination schools are like William Penn Charter Academy. Council schools were day schools. They were publicly controlled and supported by the county or borough council. They approximated more nearly our own high schools and were usually coeducational.

Characteristics of These Schools

These schools were not public or free, because all of them charged tuition, least in the council schools and greatest in the "public" schools, less in day schools and more in boarding schools.

Their main purpose was to prepare for the university, admission to which was definitely determined by the results of entrance examinations. Even before the war, letters to the *London Times Educational Supplement* both vigorously supported and equally vigorously assailed the examination system. There were those who believed that the highly selective process sponsored by the examinations was the only way to carry on the unique traditions of the English grammar school. The opponents were just as insistent that these vaunted traditions needed to be scrapped, and that the examination system should be radically modified, if not even abandoned.

Since the leaving examination, as it was called, was such a power, its content, perforce, determined the nature of the subject matter of the secondary school. It is only natural, then, for us to find that the emphasis was placed upon the humanities and mathematics to the disparagement of sciences and geopolitics. With the thought of examinations to be passed by their pupils, and being anxious for them to do as well as possible on them, the teachers were not encouraged to depart appreciably from the oft-trodden path. However, individual schools exercised considerable freedom in the arrangement of and time allotted to the subjects in the program of studies.

The Board of Education could offer suggestions as to the time distribution. Here is one:

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Periods per Week</i>
English	2-4
2 Foreign languages	9
Science	6
History	2
Geography	3
Scripture	1
Mathematics	6
Drawing	2
Music	1
Manual work	2
Physical exercises	2
	<hr/> 36-38

A recommendation such as the above had great weight on publicly controlled secondary schools. The noncontrolled schools tended to emphasize the upper two-thirds of the subjects listed. In girls' schools, domestic subjects received special attention.

Education for Girls

Secondary education for girls largely duplicated that provided for boys. The tendency was to provide separate schools for girls, although economy measures were resulting in the establishment of coeducational schools. There was no question about teaching boys and girls in the same school on the elementary level, but the Britisher, together with his brethren on the continent, has been traditionally opposed to coeducation on the secondary level. If, then, coeducation did come to pass, it was because it had been forced upon him by the feminist movement and by financial demands for rigid economy. There were, then, boys' schools to which girls were admitted and taught separately, those to which they were admitted and taught in the same classes as boys, and separate schools for girls. This last was especially true of private and endowed schools.

Relationship to Elementary Education

In our country we think of the elementary school as one of 6 or 8 years in length, leading directly and without compulsory examinations into the junior or senior high schools. The latter systems are built on top of the first. Such was not the case in England prior to

the passage of the 1944 Education Act. Elementary education was compulsory only to age 14 and might continue to the 16th or 17th year. Secondary education was in no wise compulsory. It began at age 11 or 12 and continued to age 16 or 18. Preparation for admission could be secured in the public elementary school, where examinations were taken at the age of 11, or at the end of the fifth year, in order to transfer to a secondary school. Parents who were in the proper social and financial position had their children tutored at home or sent them to private preparatory schools. It may be said that elementary education was parallel to secondary education, rather than end-to, as the British described it.

The Hadow report of 1926 introduced an improved nomenclature and organization into elementary education. Education from 2 to 11 was called primary and from 11 to 14 or 15 postprimary. The

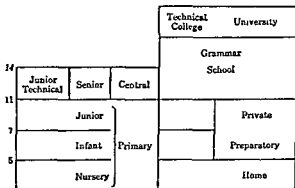


FIGURE 1. Diagrammatic Presentation of the Organization of the English School System According to the Hadow Report

primary school was divided into the nursery, 2-5, the infant, 5-7, and the junior, 7-11, divisions. Postprimary was usually a continuation of the type of work carried on in the junior school. It continued for 3 more years, until the age of 14. This path was followed by most of the youngsters. It was the one that most nearly resembled our own elementary school.

Differentiation began at the end of the junior school, or age 11,

a year earlier than that at which boys and girls in our country enter what we call the junior high school. The common procedure was to continue into the postprimary school. But for those who, at the end of the junior division, showed promise of profiting by a more advanced form of education, free place examinations were given to discover those who had sufficient intellectual ability to pursue work in the grammar or secondary school. If they succeeded in making the grade, they were admitted to council or private secondary schools where they were charged tuition fees on a graduated scale based on the income of the parents and the number of children in the family.

Schools that received grant aids from the Board of Education had to set aside at least 25 percent of the places in the first or lowest class for those pupils who had successfully passed the qualifying examinations. These grants once provided the full tuition cost, but, since more and more children began to stay in school until they were 14, there just wasn't enough money available to bestow the former largesse on all those who made good on the examinations. This meant that parents with means had to pay full costs in the secondary school, even if their child did pass the examination. Even so, we can say that England subsidized the brains of its population, because, by continued use of the examination and scholarship systems, boys of outstanding intellectual ability were selected from the elementary school to continue with their formal education up to and through the university. Many of England's leaders in law, medicine, belles-lettres, and the sciences were boys who had won free places from the elementary school.

For those who did not care to, were financially unable, or had failed to pass the leaving examination, there were senior and central schools that corresponded, on the age level, to our junior high school, except that the subjects taught were more on our senior high school level. In addition, there were junior technical schools and evening continuation schools to take care of those from 13 to 14 who desired a more technical type of training. The senior schools were found only in large towns or boroughs, while the central or council school was the common one fostered by local education authorities.

The Senior school is a name suggested for the upper department of a large elementary school which remains self-contained, usually neither contributing to a central school nor receiving contingents from primary schools not in the same building. It is a species of nonselective school end-on to a primary school, and possibly under the same head teacher.⁴

The senior school was a nonselective school, possibly a cross between the traditional higher elementary and the selective secondary school. The central school paid more attention to the commercial and crafts phase of education. Even so, it was not uncommon to find pupils studying science or a foreign language.

The subjects studied by a 13-year-old boy in a junior technical school were French, English, history, geography, Scripture, mathematics, practical geometry, freehand drawing, engineering drawing, metal work, woodwork, mechanics, chemistry with laboratory, physics with laboratory, and physical training. There were 6 periods a day, 45 minutes each in the morning and 40 in the afternoon. There was no school Wednesday or Saturday afternoons.

Dual System of Control over Elementary Education

There was, and still is, a dual system of control, whereby local education authorities ran one set of schools and religious groups and orders another. The government gave grants to both types of schools. For that reason, the term "provided" refers to the first group, and the term "nonprovided" to the second. The reason for the existence of this dual system was that the religious denominations were the only agencies to provide elementary education until the Act of 1870 enabled local education authorities to create elementary schools from public funds. The churches were allowed to keep up their schools and were privileged to receive grant aids from the Board of Education. The Anglican and Roman Catholic churches were the ones chiefly concerned with this dual system.

Many educators and lay citizens decried this dualism, and many still do, but the sentiment for denominational religious instruction was and is so powerful that the government has not been able to eliminate the system. Even in the controlled schools, Scripture, or

⁴ Herbert Ward, *The Educational System of England and Wales*, Cambridge University Press, London, 1935, p. 100.

religious teaching, is included as a part of the curriculum in the primary, postprimary, and secondary schools.

Vocational Education

We must realize that, in the period we are discussing, the compulsory school age ended at 14. What to do with those who attended postprimary schools caused a lot of argument. There were three points of view that were advocated. One group wished to hold with the grammar school tradition of the humanities. A second was desirous of converting senior and central schools into out-and-out vocational schools. A third proposed a middle-of-the-road policy that would permit pupils who finished the junior school to elect courses with a commercial, art, or industrial bias.

These courses should not be of the ultra-specialized kind which is peculiar to the Junior Technical and Junior Commercial Schools. The bias should be more marked in the last year and especially in the last term of that year. A pronounced bias in the last year often results in a voluntary extension of the school life. A Senior School, equipped with rooms for practical instruction in Science and Arts and Crafts for all its pupils, and with rooms for the Home Crafts for girls and for wood and metal work for boys, has ample opportunity for the development of 'sides,' each with a different bias, without being compelled to give its pupils a onesided education throughout their school life. A multiple-bias school does not expect that each of its pupils will, when he leaves school, get just the kind of occupation that he likes best and for which he has been partially trained, but it does expect that its pupils will be adaptable and will settle down cheerfully to make a success of whatever work they are called upon to tackle.*

The junior technical and commercial schools referred to in the above quotation were one means of providing a type of vocational education that corresponds to our industrial arts and business. These schools were not so successful as they might have been, because teachers were loath to have pupils lose the possible advantage that might accrue to them if they were to continue into senior and central high schools instead.

The more common type of vocational education was found in

* A. H. Whipple, *Education up to Fifteen Years*, Ellsin Matthews and Marrott, Ltd., London, 1939, pp. 63, 64.

junior technical school evolve into a technical high school, recruiting its population "at the age of 11 by examination, running a curriculum identical with that of the grammar school for the first two years, specializing thereafter and preparing their pupils for any one of a *group* of occupations, and with facilities for a child to transfer from grammar school to technical high school (or vice versa) at the age of 13, i.e., before specialization in either type of school began."⁸

This report suggested a sweeping reform.

Its keynote lay in removing "irrelevant privilege," in providing a "square deal" for every child, and in democratising the system of schools above the age of 11 by diversifying their functions but equalizing their status, just as the common primary school below the age of 11 had now democratised the junior schools. Such a reform would touch the vast majority of the population. (It would not, of course, include private and preparatory schools and the historic public schools.)⁹

The Spens report led to an inquiry, published in 1943, entitled the *Norwood Report on the Curriculum and Examination in Secondary Schools*, which resulted in the famous Act of 1944.

The Education Act of 1944

During the war years, England's whole political, social, and economic outlook upon life was undergoing severe changes, which resulted in the coming to power of the Labor Party, whose socialistic theories of greater democratization have since been put into operation. And yet, we must keep in mind the important fact that the Act of 1944 was made into law during the dominance of the Conservative Party. In other words, the revolution that had gradually been taking place since 1926, and its implementation through the Spens and Norwood reports, had served to prepare men's minds for a definite pronouncement in favor of eliminating class distinctions on the secondary level.

In view of the existing long-established traditional education set-up in Britain and of the universal desire for a big advance, the Act to be ac-

⁸ A. C. F. Beales, *The Yearbook of Education*, Evans Brothers Ltd., London, 1948, p. 38.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 39.

ceptable had to represent a statesman-like compromise between the old and the new; it could not give complete satisfaction to any one body but it is welcomed by all, in all the complicated circumstances, as adequately satisfactory and all are agreed that it represents educationally and, consequently, socially an immense step forward. As an Educational Charter for every child in the country, as embodying a national decision for a great expansion of educational provision from the Nursery Schools right up to the Universities, and as a successful attempt to conserve the active participation of all who could claim a share in the education of all the nation's children, it is probably the greatest Education Act in British history, not excluding the great Acts of 1870 and 1902.¹⁰

18				University
	Technical, Art, Commercial	Nonvocational	County Colleges	Grammar
15	Technical		Modern	
11	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center; justify-content: center;"> <div style="margin-right: 10px;"> Junior <hr/> Infant <hr/> Nursery </div> <div style="writing-mode: vertical-rl; transform: rotate(180deg);"> P R I M A R Y </div> </div>			Could be private preparatory
7				Could be by tutors
6				

FIGURE 2. The Organization of the British School System According to the Education Act of 1944

The changes brought about by the Act of 1944 can best be described by Figure 2, whose main features may be compared with the one that illustrated the 1926 modifications.

No longer are there elementary schools that are parallel to the secondary schools. All education beyond age 11 is considered secondary in nature. Experimentation is constantly being carried on to determine the best methods to use in recommending pupils to one of the three types of secondary schools. So far, three criteria are being followed: tests of various kinds, recommendations of teachers and principal, and the desires of parents. The grammar school is

¹⁰ Edith A. Ford, "The Program for Secondary Education in Great Britain," *The Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, April, 1947, p. 55.

the traditional university preparatory school. The technical school has already been described. The modern school will take those pupils who had attended the central and senior elementary schools of the 1926 type. It will be the most experimental of all three secondary schools in that it will attempt to provide a curriculum that will be related to the environment of the school, stressing the handicrafts and the aesthetic aspects of life.

It is in this school that the majority of our future citizens will be educated and trained so that they may become useful members of their community in work and play and happy individuals with resources for personal development in their leisure hours. The products of this school will permeate the community and in view of their numbers must largely determine the character and life of the whole nation. It has been said that the Battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton; maybe the battle of the Education Act will be won over many years not only on the playing fields but on the whole campus of the Secondary Modern School.¹¹

After the age of 15 it will be possible to continue in part-time, evening, or continuation schools that emphasize education of a technical, commercial, or art nature. The nonvocational type of school is an outgrowth of the mechanics' institutes of the nineteenth century. Its purpose is to provide an opportunity to study subjects for their cultural value and interest. The county colleges are experimental and in the process of being established.

They are to give opportunities for a healthy life and physical exercise; concentration, in leisure time, upon natural interests; imaginative stimulation through music and the arts, proficiency in the use of the English language; capacity for leadership, or at least for realizing that leadership involves a polarity of command and obedience; and a moral formation.¹²

The public schools have not been brought entirely under the Act, because their reputation is so great and their tradition so strong that the government has had to proceed with caution. But the time is contemplated when action in regard to bringing them more into line with the new proposals will have to be taken. Voluntary, or church schools, are continued, but on the understanding that the buildings are brought up to modern standards.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 61.

¹² A. C. F. Beales, *op. cit.*, p. 48.

There are now only two instead of many kinds of local education authorities, county and county borough, who are responsible to the National Board of Education. The 315 authorities have been reduced to 146. They now have jurisdiction over all phases of education, instead of only elementary, secondary, or higher, as before.

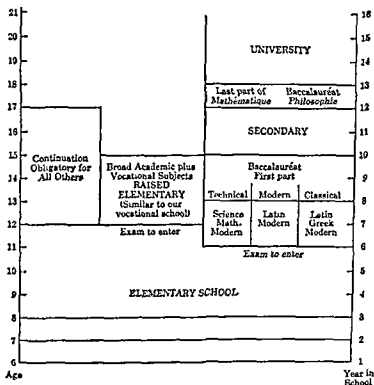


FIGURE 3. The French System in 1937

FRANCE

France is in the position of a community that has been hit by a tornado and an earthquake at the same time. When its citizen thinkers look back at the debacle that was visited upon *la belle France* in the years from 1940 to 1945, do their thoughts ever turn toward

their schools and arouse any question as to the effects their school system might have had upon them? The blame for what happened must be placed upon somebody's shoulders. Why shouldn't the schools assume their share of it? The leaders of the France that fell in 1940 were the product of its secondary schools, and the soldiers and workmen who surrendered to the enemy had attended its elementary schools. If the schools were society's agent for educating the young to be the future citizens of the state, who, when the time of crisis arrived, failed the state, then the state should reconsider the character of its educative process and make the necessary modifications.

Prior to 1939, steps were being taken gradually to introduce reforms into the school system, but progress along this line was halted during the 5 years that France lay prostrate under Nazi domination and dictation. The Germans did emphasize the importance of labor and of physical education, contributions which may have influenced the present reform movements. But, like the phoenix, the educational ideals and practices that were submerged during the war have arisen from their ashes and have resumed their accustomed form. A nation's faith in its schools may be clouded for a while by the black sadism of the tyrant conqueror, but it is too much a part of its very existence, "bone of my bone, and flesh of my flesh," as Adam said,¹³ to disappear for ever.

The Nazi Era

The secondary school system of France, as we find it today, is, in the main, similar to the one that was moving toward educational reforms in 1939; but before we launch into a description of the current situation, let us pause for a moment to review the events of the occupation era. The purpose of French secondary education was "to give a wide basis of education to all the pupils, and not to prepare them definitely for any particular kind of career; that was to come at the post-secondary stage. The key sentence in defining the aim of the secondary school in the training of its pupils was: 'Sa tâche est, sans les préparer à rien, de les rendre aptes à tout.'"¹⁴

¹³ Genesis II, 23.

¹⁴ Sir Philip Hartog, "Secondary Education in Pre-War France," *Times Educational Supplement* (London), June 10, 1942, p. 298.

It is our task, without preparing them for anything in particular, to fit them for any emergency. So, what we call general, or liberal, education has been the foundation on which France has built its educational structure of training only the intellectual elite. And that is the stereotype that all of us have had of the purpose of pre-war French secondary education. Knowledge and scholarship were the marks of the educated man. Because of the Nazi influence, which aimed at exterminating national culture in France, the Vichy government tried to enforce a "return to the land" policy, wherein agriculture was to be the main study for boys and domestic labor and the care of the house for girls. Marshal Pétain has been quoted as saying:

It was not enough to educate the mind in order to develop character. Character training requires strong and vigorous discipline, which should begin in the home and be continued by the school. Another serious defect of the traditional system was the cult of individualism, which ignored the fact that the individual exists only as a member of the family, society, and nation. While aiming to maintain and enrich the high standards of French culture an effort will be made to destroy the disastrous pseudo-culture, which is purely bookish, leads to idleness, and generates the useless. Work is the lot of man on earth, and the sense, love, and dignity of work must be restored. . . . The traditional course of study will be continued but it will be simplified and divorced from its encyclopedic and theoretical character. A far larger place will be provided for manual work whose educative value is too often ignored. . . . The aim will be to restore the quality of French craftsmanship on the one hand, and on the other to root the Frenchman in the soil of France, whence he will derive subsistence for himself and for his fellow citizens and acquire those solid virtues which made for the strength and continuity of the Fatherland. The program of work will be balanced by a program of physical training.¹⁶

The cult of individualism, which Marshal Pétain criticized, might be embodied in the slogan of the French Republic, *Liberté, Égalité, Fraternité*—liberty, equality, fraternity. He would have these watch-words of every freedom-loving man and woman supplanted by

¹⁶ I. L. Kandel, "The End of an Era," *Educational Yearbook*, International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1941, pp. 186-187.

those of the French State, *Patrie*, *Famille*, *Travail*—state, home, labor. We see here the cancerous infiltration of the Nazi doctrine of the supremacy of the state over the lives of its people—I have no will of my own except that which is vouchsafed me to bow to the commands of my Fatherland. However, we must not succumb to the belief that this corporate philosophy of the State was accepted unanimously by the parents and teachers. One has only to read accounts of the opposition to these new measures on the part of communities and their teachers to realize that tyrannical edicts cannot destroy the desire for freedom in men's hearts.

The struggle to rebuild the educational system that had been dominated by the above principles has been an uphill one. Interestingly enough, before we have finished with our description of what has happened, we are going to find evidences of a type of educational thought among French intellectuals and educators that parallel the thinking that is going on in England and Germany. This is in spite of the social retention on the part of the French people of the class distinctions of the monarchy. We read of Count This and Countess That and get a thrill over the implied reference to royalty. But even more in the intellectual than in the social realm, the French have built up an aristocratic estate, which is plainly mirrored in the school system.

Control

In France, we find a Minister of Education who is a member of the cabinet, as in England, and who has the power, granted by the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate, to enforce such rules, regulations, and standards as he sees fit to promulgate. Many of the reforms that have been put into effect from time to time are identified with the name of the man who was Minister of Education at the time they were issued. Since his term of office coincides with that of the Premier and his cabinet, naturally he voices their opinions and they approve his. It is possible, then, for one government to succeed another and modify or undo the changes that the former government had advocated. The central government has jurisdiction over curricula, teacher education, methods of classroom teaching, administration, teacher appointment, and finance. Local councils

have charge of carrying out the regulations of the central government, and the construction and maintenance of school buildings, equipment, and grounds according to those phases of the school system that properly belong to them.

The School System

In their school system the French have emphasized an intellectual state that has been almost more exclusive than their social organization. The order of educational establishments is:

Higher education

Secondary education (or education of the second degree)

Primary education (or education of the first degree)

Technical education (industrial and commercial)

Fine arts education

Schools are public and private. Public schools come under the direct supervision of the Minister of National Education. Private schools are managed by religious orders and individual groups. Our main concern is with the publicly controlled schools of the first and second degrees. Here we find the same situation that existed in England prior to the Education Act of 1944, a parallelism between elementary and secondary education.

Secondary education, or education of the second degree, is classically obtained in one of two types of schools, the *lycée*, an institution controlled and financed by the state, and the *collège*, controlled by the state but financed by the local community. There are institutions of both types for boys and for girls. Fundamentally, there are no differences between the *lycée* and the *collège* so far as the curriculum is concerned. The *lycée* enjoys the greater prestige because of tradition and because it is located in the larger cities. These differences are largely due to the historical fact that Napoleon I wanted to establish model schools in the county towns and in the most important departments. All other communes and individuals could set up their own secondary schools. The *collèges* are of two types, the *collège classique* and the *collège moderne*. The names classical and modern are not really too significant. Classical *collèges* offer work of the classical type. There really is no hard

TABLE 18. Schedule of the First Cycle

Subjects	Saliens		Croyalure		Quadrime		Troisième	
	Class.	Mod.	Class.	Mod.	Class.	Mod.	Class.	Mod.
French	4	6	3	3+1	3	3	3	5
Latin	5	3+1	5	3+1	4	4	4	3
Greek	3/4	3/4	3/4	3/4	3/4	3/4	3/4	3/4
Civics and ethics	5	5+3/4	3	3+3/4	3	3	3	3
Modern language	3	5	3	5	3	4	3	4
History	2 1/4	2 1/4	2 1/4	2 1/4	2 1/4	2 1/4	2 1/4	2 1/4
Geography	2	2	2 1/4	2 1/4	2 1/4	2 1/4	2 1/4	2 1/4
Mathematics	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4
Science observation	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4
Physics	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4	1 1/4
Physical education	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Plastic art and drawing	1 1/4	1 1/4	1	1 1/4	1	1	1	1
Musical	1	1 1/4	1	1 1/4	1	1	1	1
Practical arts	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Study of the environment	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Introduction to industrial techniques	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Introduction to economic techniques	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Introduction to the science and techniques of agriculture	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

and fast distinction between them. There are 239 national *lycées* and 659 communal *collèges*, 294 called classical, and 365 modern. The total enrollment in 1950 was 412,279.

The Curriculum of the Secondary Schools

All secondary schools offer identical programs of study. All students in classes *sixième* and *cinquième* study the same subjects except for Latin, which all do not have to take. In *quatrième* the student may elect Greek, or a second language, or, in the modern course, physics. Although it may seem somewhat complicated, Tables 18, 19 will reveal the chief characteristics of the curriculum of these schools. You will note that there are two cycles, one of 4 years, at the end of which the pupil may take an examination and leave school, or he may continue into the second cycle.

These two schedules of classes and time allotments give you the best picture of what goes on in a French secondary school that we can offer. You will note certain similarities to our own secondary schools in that there are choices of curricula to be pursued. In classes six and five there are the classical, the modern, and the experimental curricula. More about this third one later. In classes four and three, there are two classical tracks. In classes one and two of the second cycle, the classical tracks have expanded from 2 to 3. Then, in the final, or seventh year, there are only 3, the philosophical, the mathematical, and the experimental science tracks.

All instruction for classes six and five is the same for all students with the exception that some may elect Latin, or a second modern language. Those who plan definitely to prepare for the *baccalauréat* are given the first part of this examination at the end of the *classe première*, and the second part at the end of the *classe terminale*. In some *collèges* there are courses that do not prepare the student for the *baccalauréat*, but that prepare him for business. In 1946, *collèges techniques* and certain *collèges modernes* were permitted to introduce, on the fifth form level, instruction leading to a *baccalauréat technique*. A course of study is made available for all schools, which must be followed rather closely, since all examinations are based on it.¹⁸

¹⁸ *Nouveaux Horaires et Programmes de L'Enseignement du Second Degré*, Quinzième Edition, Librairie Vuibert, Paris, 1952.

Pupils, as well as the schools from which they come, consider it a high honor to enter this competitive examination and pass all the tests.

The Cours Complémentaires

Although what is known as secondary education is associated with the *lycée* and the *collège*, there is another institution that is now coming under the head of education of the second degree and

TABLE 20. Schedule of *Cours Complémentaires*

Studies	6 ^e ème	5 ^e ème	4 ^e ème	3 ^e ème
French	6	6	5	5
Civics	1	1	1	1
History and geography	3	3	3	3
Foreign language	5	5	4	4
Mathematics and geometric construction	4	4	4	4
Practical arts	2	2	1½	1½
Physics			3	3
Natural science		1½	1	1
Observational science	1½			
Drawing	1½	1½	1½	1½
Music	1	1	1	1
Physical education	2	2	2	2
Hours per week	27	27	27	27

During the second and third trimesters of *classe 3^eème*, girls take 1 hour less of mathematics.

During the second trimester of *classe 3^eème*, girls take 2½ hours of practical arts, during the third trimester 2½ hours of child care.

that is the *cours complémentaires*, which is exerting a strong influence on the movement for reorganization in France. It is attached to the primary schools for boys and girls and has the first 4 classes, *sixième*, *cinquième*, *quatrième*, and *troisième*, corresponding to those in the *lycée*. Children must be at least 11 years old and not more than 12 on December 31, and they must take an entrance examination. This same examination is also used for scholarship purposes. The *cours complémentaires* prepares pupils for the cer-

tificate of the first cycle of the second degree and for the elementary certificate. Some of these schools have, in addition to the work in general education, industrial or commercial courses, and homemaking or agricultural. These schools are located in county seats and in larger towns. Those who attend can prepare themselves for several different occupations to enter *classe deuxième* in regular schools of the second degree or to compete for admission to *L'Ecole Normale*.

Table 20 shows how the schedule, or program of classes, does take on the character of secondary education.

In 1949-1950, there were almost 200,000 students in these schools, of which there were 1,245 for boys and 898 for girls.

Education of Girls

The law of 1880 established *lycées* and *collèges* for girls. The course was 5 years, divided into 3- and 2-year periods. A *diplôme de fin d'études* was awarded on the basis of a final examination. The ancient classical languages were not taught, and the work did not prepare for the *baccalauréat*. A girl had to have private instruction if she wished to take the *baccalauréat*. In 1924, the course was lengthened to 6 years. The first part of the *baccalauréat* could be taken by studying French, modern languages, science, history, geography, and drawing. Those who worked only for the diploma took ancient and modern foreign literatures in translation, household management, handwork, music, psychology, and ethics. In July, 1925, courses of study for boys' schools were made applicable to girls' schools with such adaptations as were desirable. Coeducation was not favored. Before 1930, girls might attend boys' schools only if no girls' school was available. After 1930, if over 50 girls were in attendance, a special school would have to be established for them. Today the same curriculum is found in both boys' and girls' schools. The differences that exist are found in practical arts. The boys have wood and metal work, while the girls study clothing and home management, including cooking.¹⁹ In 1949-1950, there were 357 special secondary schools for girls, grouped as follows: 85 *lycées*, 92 *collèges classiques*, 177 *collèges modernes*, and 3 *annexes des lycées*.

¹⁹ *Nouveaux Horaires et Programmes de L'Enseignement du Second Degré*, Quinzième Edition, Librairie Vuibert, Paris, 1952, pp. 128-132.

mentary schools, enrolling 3,630,000, are organized in 2-year cycles. The program of studies includes civics and ethics, reading, writing, history and geography of France and the French Union, geography of the great powers, object lessons, applied science, drawing, hand-work, physical education, and supervised activities. The work is completed at the age of 14 by means of an examination that includes oral questions on composition and arithmetic, written tests on history or geography and science, singing, drawing, or needlework. Those who intend to enter secondary school or the *cours complémentaire* pass an examination on entering *sixième*. They must also be between 11 and 12 years of age.

Proposed Reforms

The war had a devastating effect on France. Under the Nazis the state courses of study were modified or eliminated, so that, after the liberation, the whole school system had to undergo a period of readjustment. Buildings had been destroyed or were inadequate because of increased birth rate. The older teachers had disappeared and new ones were hard to recruit. It is interesting to see how the same social ferment has been stirring up opposition to France's class system of education as was responsible for the English Education Act of 1944. The postwar education had three fundamental principles widely accepted as its basis. "Firstly, equality of educational opportunity; secondly, extended development of scientific and technical studies; thirdly, education for the whole man."²⁰ The reform movement had its beginnings in Algiers in 1944. It was brought to the mainland and incorporated in what came to be known as the Langevin plan, which was published in 1947. In 1949, the main recommended changes were: (1) compulsory education to the 18th birthday; (2) a unified school system with a diversified program so that each pupil might receive the education adapted to his abilities and tastes; (3) an orientation program; and (4) introduction of activity methods, including (a) independent work to bring out individual abilities, and (b) group work to stimulate social development.

In 1945, the preparatory classes of the secondary schools were brought under the jurisdiction of the Division of Primary Schools

²⁰ *Yearbook on Education*, 1952.

and thereby became integrated into a unified primary school system. The secondary schools had always emphasized the classical aspects of the curriculum. One of the attempts to move away from the traditional content was the introduction in 1945 of the *classes nouvelles*, beginning with 200 classes in *sixième*, in *lycées*, *collèges*, technical *collèges*, and *cours complémentaires*. These 200 classes entered *cinquième* in 1946, *quatrième* in 1947 and *troisième* in 1948, thereby completing the first cycle. Each year, the 200 classes that advanced from *sixième* were replaced by another 200. It is not the intention to expand beyond these 200. The chief distinctions between the course pursued by the *classes nouvelles* and that which was regularly followed were: (1) less emphasis on mathematics; (2) increased emphasis on manual training, plastic arts, and the study of the environment; (3) attention directed to the guidance and orientation of the student; (4) greater recognition of the individual needs and interests of the student; (5) emphasis on acquiring information first-hand rather than all of it from books; and (6) more use of the activity method as a means of developing individual initiative and social coöperation. Teachers were selected for these classes who were willing to go along with the experiment. Their enthusiasm has infected the teachers of the traditional classes, so that they, on their own initiative, have introduced some of the techniques employed in the *classes nouvelles*.

The Langevin plan has been succeeded by the so-called Delbos plan, which recognized the financial and facility difficulties involved in carrying out the Langevin proposals. Education would be classified as primary, secondary, and higher. The first cycle of the primary would include nursery schools (3-6) and elementary (6-11). The program would be the same for all in the way of acquiring the basic skills and a study of the environment. A second cycle (11-13) of orientation and introduction to secondary education would follow. The student would take a certain number of electives so as to reveal those tastes and aptitudes that might fit him for any succeeding type of secondary education (13-18). This second cycle would be followed, after the passing of necessary examinations, by any one of 3 tracks. In the practical section students would learn a trade and earn a certificate of apprenticeship. The second section would enroll students whose aim would be to earn a certificate of aptitude in agri-

culture, business, or industrial skills. The third group would receive the traditional secondary group, whose purpose is to obtain the *baccalauréat* of the second degree in classical humanities, modern humanities, or pure and applied science.

Then, between the age of 18 and 20, qualified students would be allowed to prepare for further work in the university or advanced professional school. Successful entrance to one of the schools in the university, law, science, letters, medicine, or pharmacy, or one of the advanced professional schools would confer upon the candidate the degree of bachelor of letters or of science.²¹

GERMANY

Education in Germany has been subject to the political and social upheavals that the country has experienced in the past half century. There was the Empire of Bismarck that crumbled during the first world war and that was succeeded by the Republic. Then came the Third Reich, or the National Socialist regime, whose excesses culminated in its overthrow. Today we have a Germany divided into East and West under the aegis of the four powers who conquered her.

We have already learned that institutions like that of the school undergo an evolutionary rather than a revolutionary change. The schools of today may not resemble those of a half century ago in all respects, but the main superstructure can still be singled out. The secondary and elementary schools of the Germany of today show evidences of modification, but the fundamental structure is there, just the same. That is why, for our particular purpose in obtaining a view of the German school system, we shall stress what we find today and refer to the schools of yesterday, whenever such reference is needed to clarify the picture.

What we know about the situation in East Germany is that Soviet control is doing its best to warp the minds of young Germans to hate all things anticommunist. We could profitably spend time on a more detailed analysis of the situation in East Germany, but space compels us to forego this study. The West German state consists of

²¹ Valuable information on France may be found in *L'Organisation de L'Enseignement en France*, Centre National de Documentation Pédagogique, Musée Pédagogique, Paris, 1952.

Länder that correspond to our states. These *Länder* have been divided into zones of influence (formerly zones of occupation). The British zone includes Hamburg, Lower Saxony, North Rhine Westphalia, and Schleswig-Holstein. In the American zone we find Bavaria, Bremen, Hesse, and Württemberg-Baden. Rheinland-Pfalz, Baden, and Württemberg-Hohenzollern comprise the French zone. The remaining states are under Soviet domination.

In the early days of the occupation, the four powers worked together on all matters political, economic, and educational. This cooperation lasted only until the winter of 1948. But, during the 2½ years of its existence, it did pay a great deal of attention to the schools, which had suffered grievously during the war. School buildings had shared the total destruction aspect of the terrific bombing to which all German cities had been subjected. Some of them had been completely destroyed, others only partially, while a third group had suffered but little damage. It became necessary to suspend schooling entirely or to send the school children to the rural areas that had escaped the bombing. Teachers had been impressed into service, so that there was a shortage on the staff side.

Consequently, the four powers were faced with the task of providing facilities of some type for both elementary and secondary boys and girls in order to get them off the streets and under some form of control. Completely destroyed structures had, of course, to be abandoned. The partially destroyed buildings were patched up somehow or other, even if no heat could be supplied. These buildings and those that were unharmed had to serve at least two schools, each one meeting every other day in the morning and then on alternate days in the afternoon. So, when one school was dismissed, another was moving in.

A second problem was connected with the teachers. A so-called de-Nazification committee had to pass on the political qualifications of all teachers. Any teacher against whom there was evidence of strong Nazi participation was barred from resuming his job. The result was that many otherwise excellent teachers were absolutely denied the opportunity to teach, even though their subjects such as science, music, shorthand, and apprenticeship training had nothing to do with political affairs. Consequently, many "mugwumps," as we might call them, were permitted to teach, when obviously they

were of inferior quality. And so, with the shortage of buildings, there was a shortage of teachers—but no shortage of boys and girls.

A third difficulty arose in the matter of textbooks. There were no books in bombed-out or partially destroyed buildings. Many other buildings had been used to house troops or prisoners of war, who had committed acts of vandalism in destroying everything they could lay their hands on. In other words, books were a minus quantity. However, this last statement is not entirely true. There were books in schools in rural areas that had been left untouched by the bombers, but, in the eyes of the occupation powers, these books were not fit to be used in postwar schools. Why? Because their contents were permeated with Nazi doctrines and theories. These books, so it was said, had to be purged before they could be put back into the hands of school children. The British term "vetting" was applied to the process of examining all these books and actually cutting out all offensive or nonacceptable parts or pasting adhesive tape over them. Here is an illustration of what these book censors were up against. A most up-to-date looking primer was entirely devoted to the coming of *der Führer* and the reception that greeted him on his arrival, a reception in which all the school children took part. Naturally, since *der Führer* was now *kaput*, such a book was not only useless but "subversive."

Not only were books unavailable, either because of nonexistence or because of being unacceptable, there was also a great scarcity of paper and notebooks. Anything that had a writing surface was turned to good use. Students developed most ingenious methods in "scrounging" around for writing materials. Mimeographed sheets discarded by army offices were folded and stitched by hand to make a notebook, only one side of the paper of course, being serviceable.

The Background of Directives

There was general agreement among the four powers that the class and caste system of German education, plus the content of the curriculum, had much to do with the molding of the character of the German people in the direction of an aggressiveness that had found its outlet in two world wars. To have some idea of what this system had been, we need to consider its main features. The Germany of Bismarck fostered a caste system of nobility, military brass,

and the worker—a system reflected in the schools. The first group went to a preparatory school (*Vorschule*) for 3 years, and then to a secondary school of 9 years. Germany invented a scheme of a separate school for each type of curriculum, so that everybody who attended the same school studied the same subject. The chief type of such schools were the *Gymnasium*, which was entirely classical in its emphasis on Greek and Latin, the *Real-gymnasium*, with its stress on Latin and modern languages, and the *Oberrealschule*, which emphasized modern languages, mathematics, and the sciences. There were variants of these types in the various *Länder*, because there was no federal control of education, but they will not be listed here, because our purpose is to get the general overall picture.

The children of the masses went to the 8-year *Volksschule*. After graduation at the age of 14 they entered some form of apprenticeship work until the age of 18, whereupon they became full-time workers in some job or occupation.

The Republic did away with the *Vorschule*, and called the first 3 years of the *Volksschule* the *Grundschule*, which all had to attend. At the end of the *Grundschule* the decision had to be made as to whether the youngster should remain in the *Volksschule* or go to a secondary school.

The Third Reich under Hitler brought all schools under federal, or state, control. It accomplished a service to the secondary schools of Germany by abolishing the multitudinous types that had sprung up, like Topsy, in the different *Länder* and retaining three—the *Gymnasium*, the *Oberschule*, and the *Aufbauschule*. The *Gymnasium* kept its classical flavor and still had for its chief aim preparation for the university. The other two schools were products of the Republic, both of them aiming at greater emphasis on *Deutschtum*. In our country we would call such a thing Americanism. It seems natural that Hitler would retain these two schools because they could lend themselves so easily to his purpose of Nazi thought control. By the way, he increased the length of the *Grundschule* to 4 years and lessened the length of the secondary school to 8 years. Education in the *Grundschule* and *Volksschule* was free, but there was a tuition charge in the secondary school. The emphasis in the *Grundschule* was on race training, physical education, biology, history, and German. Select boys were qualified, at the age of 10, to

join the *Hitler-jugend* instead of continuing in the *Volksschule* or some secondary school. Gregor Ziemer has given us a graphic picture of the indoctrination of these boys.²²

The *Gymnasium*, under Hitler, was for boys only. Its curriculum was largely devoted to a study of languages, Latin from the beginning, Greek from the third year on, and English the last 3 years. Other subjects were mathematics, biology, chemistry, physics, art, music, geography, history, German, and, of course, physical education. The other two schools provided education separately for boys and girls. In the *Oberschule*, the first 5 years were common to all. Languages for the boys were Latin and English, for the girls, English and French. Homemaking was also substituted for some of the work taken by the boys. Otherwise, the work resembled that offered in the *Gymnasium*. The decree of 1938 introduced an innovation, so far as the last 3 years were concerned, in that, for the boys, there was a choice of a linguistic course or one that stressed science and mathematics, and for the girls, a choice between languages and household arts.

The *Aufbauschule* was the third type of school that survived. It had been instituted under the Republic to provide secondary education in towns and villages that did not support such a school. It was 6 years in length, which meant that boys and girls remained 2 years longer in the *Volksschule*. The *Aufbauschule* provided a 6-year course that stressed Germany and things German. In the girls' schools, the last 3 years offered household arts only.

There were other phases to the Nazi educational program that exerted a profound influence on the youth of Germany, but we have time to give them only brief mention. These might be called party schools, since they were independent of the state schools. The first one was the *National-politische Erziehungsanstalten*, the National Political Educational Institution. The students were selected at the age of 10 on the basis of physique and racial purity. For 8 years they pursued a course somewhat similar to that of the *Oberschule*, but with added emphasis on military life. The second was the *Adolf-Hitlerschule*. It took boys at age 11 or 12 and gave them, tuition-free, an even more strenuous military course, with the academic program

²² Gregor Ziemer, *Education for Death*, Oxford University Press, New York, 1941.

resembling that of the *Aufbauschule*. From their number Hitler aimed to develop "those fearless, vigorous, commanding, and cruel young men with the strength and beauty of young beasts."

It should not be surprising to us when we come across stories of the reactions of these products of the military and political indoctrination in instances of barbaric cruelty inflicted upon subjugated and

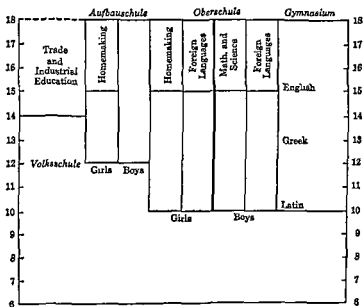


FIGURE 5. The German School System under Hitler

impotent peoples. Educational psychology has taught us a great deal about conditioning, a scientific name applied to the old adages, "Train up a child in the way he should go, and, when he is old, he will not depart from it," and "As the twig is bent, so is the tree inclined." If a youngster, subjected from his most impressionable years on into manhood, hears and learns nothing but that he belongs to the superior race, that all other people are his enemies who must be enslaved or exterminated, that Spartan fortitude must be displayed by him under all circumstances, that cold-blooded, bestial cruelty must be meted out to all those who oppose the *Führer*, of whom there is

only one, and to whom he must sacrifice all that he has, can he be blamed personally for these reactions?

Just look to our own country and ask yourselves how hoodlums "got that way." There was a time when they were innocent youngsters who were unfortunate enough to fall into evil company that gradually inured them to a life of crime. At first it was fun, because they weren't old enough to realize the consequences. Then, before they knew it, their criminal acts became their natural mode of behavior. Fagin's training of Oliver Twist to become a good pickpocket is a good illustration of what can happen to an unsuspecting youngster.

The Occupation Period

Such were the schools, or their remnants, with which the occupation powers had to deal. Instead of agreeing with each other to make a common attack on the problems that faced them, each one went more or less his own way, with the result that each zone took on somewhat the educational characteristics of its particular occupying power. Our concern is with what happened in the American zone. In March, 1947, The Division of Education and Religious Affairs issued Title 8, a bulletin that published the rules and regulations laid down by Military Government concerning all aspects of education. Although the immediate responsibility of operating the schools was placed on the German education authorities, the education officers of Military Government in each of the *Länder* were charged with encouragement, supervision, and inspection of the schools under their control.

To demonstrate the direction which Military Government felt that the German schools should take, we shall quote from the guiding principles for evaluation of the educational program.

If democracy and the will to international cooperation are to develop and stay in Germany the system of education must be so constructed as to promote the democratic attitude, the understanding of other people and the readiness to fit into the family of nations in every possible way. Therefore, any school law will be evaluated for its *compliance* [*italics mine*] with the following general principles:

- a. There shall be equal educational opportunity for all;

- b. There shall be free tuition in all public schools; free textbooks and materials, and school maintenance grants for those who need aid;
- c. Compulsory full-time attendance will be required for all between the ages of six to fifteen—and part-time compulsory attendance from sixteen to eighteen years of age;
- d. Schools for the compulsory period shall form a comprehensive educational system to serve all youth. The two track system and all overlapping of elementary and secondary schools will be abolished. The terms elementary and secondary shall mean two consecutive levels of instruction, not two types or qualities of instruction;
- e. All schools shall lay emphasis upon education for civic responsibility and a democratic way of life; both by means of the curriculum and by the organization of the school itself;
- f. School curricula shall promote international good-will and understanding in every way possible;
- g. Professional educational and vocational guidance shall be provided for all;
- h. Health supervision and health education shall be provided in all schools;
- i. All teacher education shall be on a university level;
- j. Where the constitutions permit the establishment of interdenominational and denominational schools side by side, the school law should safeguard their educational standards with regard to grading, staff, equipment, and the like; and
- k. The administration of the schools will be democratic and sensitive to the wishes of the people.

A perusal of these directives, because that is what they are, will reveal the "wills" and the "shalls" that accord with the word "compliance." That is why the idea of "reforming" the German educational system was such a prevalent one among many consultants who were sent over to Germany from America to assist in the implementation of the directives. Consequently, some resentment and opposition were created because these consultants were not always too tactful in their dealings with the German personnel.

As the time approached for the establishment of the West German Republic, the word "reorganization" replaced "reform," because it became evident that there were traditions and vested interests strong enough to oppose or counteract any changes in the school

system.²³ There were many tough nuts to crack, the most common one being that the same approach could not be made in the various *Länder*. Bavaria and Bremen were great contrasts, Bavaria veering toward the authoritarian and traditional side, Bremen embracing the democratic and experimental. It was impractical to carry out the same program in both.

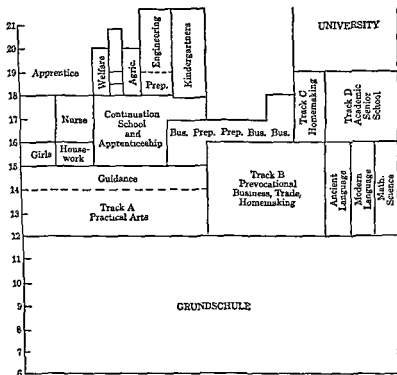


FIGURE 6. The School System of Bremen

Since it is impossible for us to study the individual programs that have been developed in each of the *Länder*, we shall treat the one

²³ I had the opportunity to work with the secondary schools of Bremen in the winter and spring of 1948, so that I became personally acquainted with some of the obstacles to reorganization. One of the hardest things I finally brought about was having representatives from the *Volksschulen* sit in with a committee of secondary teachers and administrators.

which more nearly has carried out the directives of 1947. This is Bremen.

While the other *Länder* are arguing over the merits of a 4-year over a 6-year *Grundschule*, Bremen has adopted the latter. All boys and girls go 6 years to the *Grundschule*, with the exception of the small number who enter the *Gymnasium* at the end of the fourth year. This was a concession made to the classicists who argued vociferously and mightily that it was impossible for students to get in all the foreign language requirements if they did not begin the study of Latin at the beginning of the fifth year. English is required of all students, except those judged incapable of grasping it, beginning in the fifth year. All forms of education that come after the sixth year are looked upon as secondary and come under the heading of *Volks-oberschule*. The first of these 6 years offers the opportunity to elect the academic or practical curriculum. The former has a core for the first 3 years, after which the student chooses the mathematics and science track, the modern language track, or the fine arts track.

Graduation from the academic *Oberschule* is obtained only after passing the *Abitur*, a comprehensive final examination which is written and may be oral. It corresponds to the leaving examination in England and the *baccalauréat* in France. The *Abitur* is the open sesame to all postsecondary schools. If a candidate fails he may be given another chance, but no more.

Those who have elected the practical curriculum have 3 years of orientation in business, homemaking, or industrial arts. At the conclusion of regular schooling in these areas the boy or girl enters part-time or full-time vocational work. The part-time schooling is associated with apprenticeship training and must be continued until the age of 18. Full-time vocational training may be taken in lieu of apprenticeship training or anytime thereafter.

By way of contrast with Bremen, Berlin has introduced the 8-year elementary school as shown in Figure 7.

In the Soviet zone, the school system bears some resemblance to the one we have just sketched. A nursery school for 2 years precedes the *Grundschule*, which is 6 years in length. For the next 2 years, there are 3 tracks open to youth, one for the practical-minded, one for those with linguistic talents, and the third for those gifted in mathematics and science. Beginning with the ninth year the first

group goes to vocational schools for 3 years, followed by special vocational schools for those desiring that type, the second has a choice of the ancient or the modern language track, while the third continues with mathematics and science. The studies of these last three groups are concluded after four years. The time element is the same

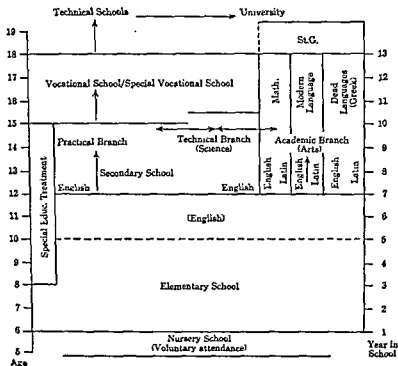


FIGURE 7. The Berlin System of School Organization

as that which we found in Bremen, but the secondary school proper does not begin until the ninth year.

In Bremen, schooling is free and so are the textbooks. The original plan of constructing the school plant so that the school might take on the aspects of the comprehensive type has not been fulfilled, largely because it was financially necessary to use the existing structures that had been repaired. Sentiment, tradition, and alumni have

worked to keep each school going where it was. Even under these restrictions, coeducation, manual training, and elements of home-making, or housewifery, are being introduced into the academic schools.

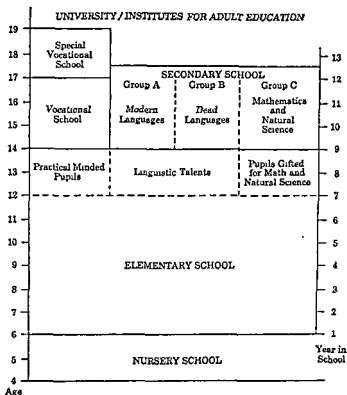


FIGURE 8. The School System of East Germany

Where the great transformation in German education is taking place is in the elementary schools (*Grundschule*). Architects, assisted by expert consultants from this country, have gone all out in fashioning functional buildings in an aesthetic setting. The Habenhausen school in Bremen has, in its center, a spacious foyer. To the right runs a long corridor from which there are wings that house

the classrooms. Each room has light from two sides, green chalkboards, the most modern movable desks and swivel chairs, drinking fountains, cloakroom, and conference room. To the left of the foyer are the magnificent *Aula* or auditorium, the gymnasium, and the library. This section may be used for all sorts of community activities, since it is completely separated from the class instructional area.

Textbooks are pouring from the presses in the millions. Many of them are the product of teacher workshops rather than of the type majestically handed down from above. They do credit to any school system in the world.

It is difficult to say how much credit we should take unto ourselves for the democratization of German schools for the reason that the same ferment that is now manifesting itself in German educational thought and practice was responsible for the English Education Act of 1944 and for the Langevin Report in France in 1947. It seems that the whole world (witness what is happening in India and in Pakistan) is awakening to the new regard for the dignity of the human individual, no matter in what station in life his birth has accidentally placed him. When we realize how long it has taken us who pride ourselves on our democratic school system, to get where we are today,²⁴ we must be charitable in our attitudes toward those who are struggling to achieve the same results in a much shorter time. So it may be only coincidental that we happened to be working with the Germans in the reorganization of their school system at the same time that they had similar ideas. It does not behoove us, therefore, to bestow upon ourselves any excessive glory for the transformation that is now taking place. Rather let us be thankful that we were able to lend assistance when assistance was needed.

THE SOVIET UNION

Greater educational changes have occurred in Russia than in any of the countries we have studied. The Bolshevik Revolution and the evolution of communism as an economic, political, and educational force annihilated a form of political tyranny that had restricted the advantages of education to the well-to-do children of Russian-speak-

²⁴ We must not overlook those areas in our own country where equal educational opportunities have not yet been wholly attained.

ing aristocrats. Bolshevism threw out the prevailing educational system to join its outcast companion, the imperialistic tsarist regime. The smoldering resentment, fanned by the flames of suppression and repression, that burst forth and consumed its masters, had to build from the ground up. The ideas of Marx, Lenin, and Stalin for a communist state were built on the political, social, and cultural development of the proletariat. An ignorant, illiterate populace had no place in their scheme of society. And Russia had one of the highest degrees of illiteracy among the countries of Europe.

So the task that Lenin and Stalin and their followers set for themselves was a stupendous one. There was, for one thing, political and social opposition that had to be overcome. Force and violence were the means used to quell it. Then the ideals and doctrines of communism had to be spread by a small number of enthusiasts to a *corps of teachers who were willing but ill prepared*. In fact, the youngsters, organized as Pioneers in 1922, were the ones to instruct their befuddled teachers. A certain feeling of freedom of opportunity acted as an intoxicant to try out new methods. All the most advanced educational methods were welcomed and introduced into the schools. Montessori, Parkhurst, Dewey became household names in educational circles. The project method, individualized instruction, and student self-government were widely practiced. Here again, as in the case of communism itself, the teachers had not been prepared to conduct school in such revolutionary fashions. Even those in charge of the schools failed to realize that the prescription of a certain method of teaching would not insure its successful use by an unskilled, inexperienced teacher. This is a mistake commonly made by all zealous social reformers. The upshot of the experiment *in freedom and progressive education* was the decree of 1931 which restored more of the traditional type of school organization, administration, and methodology.

The war, of course, was *cataclysmic in its effects upon the Soviet schools*, because the ordered life of the whole nation had been disrupted by the invasion. Nevertheless, it can be said with due caution that, when the war was over, the communist school system functioned in about the same way that it did before June, 1940. The reason is that the scheme of education that had been developed and put into operation was so much a picture of the soul and spirit of

the communists that there was little likelihood that any important changes would be made.

The U.S.S.R., Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, is composed of 16 republics that have the right of secession. The one that we know as Russia is the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic. Under each republic there are autonomous republics and national regions that center around racial and linguistic individualities. Instead of trying to force the numerous nationalities to give up speaking their own languages or dialects for Russian, the Communist party has very wisely kept from interfering with such matters of social intimacy and has thus won over to its cause these many otherwise discordant elements. This means that schools, wherever they are established, are conducted in the language of the locality.

Control

The U.S.S.R. is operated by the Supreme Soviet, a legislative body elected from the Republics, which functions through the Council of People's Commissars. The Commissariats deal with the different phases of national life. So far as education is concerned, each Republic has its own Commissariat of Education, assisting in whose operation is an advisory Education Commissar. There is no real federal control of education, although the Commissariat of Education of the R.S.F.S.R. probably sets the pattern for the Commissariats in other Republics. The Commissariat of Education is concerned with the same kind of problems that come within the province of a State Board of Education in our country, requirements for graduation, courses of study, textbooks, length of term, qualifications of teachers, etc. Locally, regional, district, and local committees decide upon buildings, equipment, and staff. The local group appoints the head or director of a school. He, in turn, selects his staff, subject to the approval of the local committee.

Financial Support

The financial support of schools comes from many quarters, chiefly because schools may be initiated and fostered by so many different groups. One reason is that every school is generally attached to some industrial or agricultural enterprise. Many of these groups assume a large share of the burden of the financial support,

although the Commissariat of Education finances salaries and equipment in varying amounts. Until 1940 no tuition was charged, since the intent of the party was to provide free education in order to encourage boys and girls to stay in school as long as possible. But, in 1940, an announcement came out that students in the eighth grade and upwards, i.e., in the 10-year and special secondary schools, would be required to pay fees. This fee today is equivalent to a worker's average monthly income. The new vocational schools are supported entirely by the Republic. Orphans and needy boys and girls receive financial assistance from parents and factory committees. If they pass their entrance examinations successfully their fees are also remitted.

School System

The Soviet school system approximates our own to the extent that it is built upon the educational ladder conception of education. Where it is possible to maintain nursery schools, boys and girls begin at this level; otherwise they wait to enter the preparatory class. Where there is a complete secondary school of 10 years, all the levels are continuous, i.e., school begins with the nursery and continues to age 18. In other words, some schools may be short at one end, the nursery school, or short at the other end, the complete secondary school. And so the preparatory class may be attached to the nursery school or to the primary school. One year is spent in the preparatory class. This is followed by 4 years in the primary school, from the age of 7 to that of 11.

The teacher in the primary school teaches all the subjects of his grade and advances with his class. The important studies are Russian language, arithmetic, nature study, history, geography, physical training, art, and music. An examination is given at the end of the fourth year to transfer to the incomplete or junior secondary school, years 11-14. Most of the boys and girls complete their general education in this school. All take the same subjects—Russian or native language, a European foreign language, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, Constitution of the U.S.S.R., physics, chemistry, drawing, and art. An examination is given at the end of the third year, whereupon the student may pursue one of 3 courses, enter a technicum for 3 or 4 years' specification, go to a senior secondary school, or go for

6 months to a year to a factory apprentice school. "Whatever work a boy or girl finally takes up, he or she may pursue further education, and later, while at work, may specialise through the evening courses, or through them train for entirely different work or a new profession."²⁵

The senior school takes the academically inclined pupils from age 14 to age 17. The course is the same for all. World literature, mathematics, history, physics, chemistry, a foreign language, physical

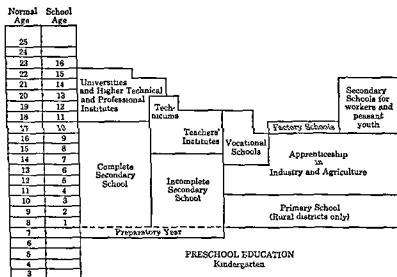


FIGURE 9. School Organization in 1948-1949 in U.S.S.R.

training, and draughtmanship are taught all three years, general science and geography, the first two, and astronomy the third. Rural junior and senior schools give 2 hours a week to agricultural education. Other modifications have resulted in the introduction of shorthand in some schools in 1947, and Latin in a few schools in 1948.

The matriculation diploma is achieved at the end of the third year after an examination that corresponds to the French *baccalauréat* and the German *Abitur*. The examination in mathematics and Rus-

²⁵ Beatrice King, *Russia Goes to School*, The New Education Book Club, London, 1948, p. 63.

sian grammar and literature is both written and oral. In other subjects it is oral only. The school matriculation diploma grants entrance to the university or technical institute. The student decides on his area of specialization before he enters upon his advanced work.

Schools for Illiterates

But the Soviets have other types of schools, originally founded to enable illiterate adults to enjoy the advantages already bestowed upon their children. Mention has already been made of the high place accorded literacy and an intelligent proletariat in the communist philosophy of the socialist state. One of the greatest transformations ever brought about to bring enlightenment to a mind-darkened people has been effected by the communists. This modern miracle has been performed by the establishment of adult schools. They began with a 9-month school for semiliterates. A 2-year high school course gave them the equivalent of the incomplete secondary school. Then they were qualified to enter a regular factory school called a rabfac, or to go to a workers' continuation technicum for 3 to 4 years. Those who graduated from the complete secondary school and the rabfac could enter directly a state university, a higher educational institution, regular, continuation, or communist, or a higher technical institution. Those who graduated from a technicum or a workers' continuation technicum might be admitted to all the higher institutions mentioned (with the exception of the state university), a 2- to 3-year academy for administrators, and a 2-year teachers' institute. The literacy program has been so successful that schools for adult illiterates have about disappeared. There were also certain special schools that do not particularly concern us here.

Education for Girls.

No distinction is made between boys and girls in the matter of educational privileges. Both are on equal footing from the nursery school to the university. But coeducation, which was one of the real innovations in Russian education, was abolished in 1943.

Coeducation makes no allowance for differences in physical development of boys and girls, for variations required by the sexes in preparing

each for their future life work, for good practical activity, for military training, and, finally, it does not insure the required standard of discipline among pupils.

These words were uttered by the People's Commissar of Education in 1946.²⁶ Nevertheless, the separate schools provided the same curriculum for the girls as for the boys.

If there is one outstanding characteristic of Soviet education, it is its emphasis upon the coördination of hand and mind. We must remember that the Bolshevik revolution was a workers' revolution. The intellectuals, the *bourgeoisie*, were anathema, because their lives and methods of thought were so far removed from those of the proletariat. Consequently, it was vital to the success of the communist state that the worker, the manual worker, be exalted in the eyes of his fellows. The corollary was that work must enter into the pattern of the curriculum on equal terms with the regular subjects. This phase of school life was called polytechnization. Although it was discontinued in 1941, it still merits some attention on our part, because it coincides with what certain educationists in our own country have been advocating in the way of universal manual experiences on the part of all boys and girls in home arts and general shop or agriculture.

The purpose of polytechnization did not have a vocational bias any more than does our course in general shop or home mechanics. According to one writer:²⁷

They are not expected to be experts when they leave school. They are expected to have, however, as far as any experience goes they do have, an intelligent grasp of the economic system and the organization of production in their country by the time they leave at sixteen or eighteen years old. They will all be able to use a variety of tools, and have an acquaintance with a number of different machines and motors.

But, in 1937, polytechnization was abandoned on the grounds that the articles made and the tools used were not bringing about the educational ends hoped for, and that the time thus spent could be more profitably used in the science laboratory. Furthermore, clubs

²⁶ Maurice J. Shore, *Soviet Education*, Philosophical Library, New York, 1947, p. 210.

²⁷ Beatrice King, *Changing Man*, The Viking Press, Inc., New York, 1937, p. 65.

in practical activities might take the place of regular classroom work. The time thus freed should be spent on the Russian language and laboratory science. At the same time that this change was made from polytechnization to the Russian language and more science, another decree compelled all pupils from the age of 12 and all university students to take a foreign language. This edict concerned those who attended incomplete and complete secondary schools and higher institutions. Since yearly advancement was determined by the successful passing of examinations, this edict would affect the more capable students, for the others would have gone into technicums. Even these results were not so successful as had been anticipated. The clubs did not materialize, so boys and girls were not getting any manual experience in the regular secondary school. They were, of course, getting it in the technicums, rabfacs, and workers' continuation technicums. Nevertheless, polytechnization as an educational theory is again being considered as a means toward bringing theory and practice together.

In 1940, due to the war and the absolute necessity of finding replacement for factory workers who had been taken into the army, new types of vocational schools were organized. The Soviet Union needed from 800,000 to 1,000,000 yearly reserves to be trained for industry. How to get them was the question. There were already available boys and girls who had dropped out of the secondary school but who could not work until they were 16. But more than these were needed. Appeals to their loyalty and patriotism as well as holding out to them the opportunity to earn money succeeded in making these new vocational schools very popular. There were three types of these, trade schools, railway schools, and factory workshop training schools. The first two were 2 years in length, the third, 6 months. The trade schools offered courses for workers in skilled trades and for qualified workers in transport and communication services, the railway schools in the activity designated by the name, while the factory workshop training schools trained workers of the more widely applied trades. During their time of study all pupils were maintained by the State, which provided for tuition and all living expenses, since these apprentice workers were housed in dormitories. After graduation, the workers were mobilized like those in the army. They must work for 4 continuous years in State enter-

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prises under the direction of the Central Labor Reserves Administration. They were also exempt from military service until their 4 years work period was at an end.

The above arrangement enabled the Soviet Union to maintain a huge army of soldiers, reserves, and workers. It was a satisfactory answer to the question of man power, since the factories and industries were manned by postadolescents and women. Each year the incoming youthful workers and the women replaced many men for the army. The process became a continuous one. Through these schools the State can now plan to train workers according to the needs of any particular industry, because it will know how many welders, how many electricians, how many boilermakers, and so on, each form of industry will need each year.

Party Organizations

But there is another educational power in the Soviet Union that exerts a great influence on the boys and girls. This power is in the form of party organizations, the Octobrists, the Pioneers, and the *Komsomol*. Very early the communists realized the sense in that phase of educational psychology which emphasized early conditioning of the child. The Nazis and fascists have done the same thing. If the communists were to have men and women who believed firmly and stoutly in the tenets of communism they must implant the seeds of this belief early in the soil of the child's mind.

The *Komsomol*, or Young Communist League, was the earliest of these groups. It is the link between adolescent youth and the Communist party itself, since the members of the party, which is limited in number, are recruited from those who belong to the *Komsomol*, and there are party members who also belong to the *Komsomol*. The explanation is that 18 is the age for admission to the party, whereas membership in the *Komsomol* takes in those between the ages of 14 and 23. Since success in being admitted to the party depends upon an individual's loyalty to the principles of communism and his activities in enforcing them in his local community, the *Komsomol* must be considered the proving ground for the future leaders of the country. Consequently, great care is exercised in passing on all candidates for admission from those who are sons and daughters of others than peasants and workers.

The Pioneers were organized in 1922 to take the place of the Boy Scouts. They bear about the same relation to the *Komsomol* that the *Komsomol* bears to the party, with the same type of overlapping in membership. That is, the younger members of the *Komsomol* can also be members of the Pioneers. The age limit in the latter is from 10 to 16. For this reason the *esprit de corps* of the older group is infectiously passed on to the younger. Many of the characteristic procedures and insignia of the Boy Scouts have been taken over and modified to suit the communist philosophy. Instead of troops they have brigades, whose leader is a member of the *Komsomol*. They also have a simple uniform and a special badge. Their activities are illustrated by their "laws" and "customs," which again seem to parallel the law of the Scouts.

Laws—(1) The Pioneer is true to the cause of the working class and to the Covenant of Lenin. (2) The Pioneer is the younger brother and helper of the *Komsomol* and of the Party. (3) The Pioneer is a comrade to Pioneers and to the workers' and peasants' children of the world. (4) The Pioneer organizes the surrounding children and participates with them in the life they live. The Pioneer is an example to all children. (5) The Pioneer strives for knowledge. Knowledge and skill are power in the struggle for the workers' cause.

Customs—(1) The Pioneer protects his own health and the health of others. He is tolerant and cheerful. He rises early and does his morning exercises. (2) The Pioneer economizes his own and other people's time. He does his job quickly and promptly. (3) The Pioneer is industrious and persevering, can work collectively under any conditions, and finds the way over obstacles. (4) The Pioneer is careful with other people's property, is careful with his own books and clothes, and with workshop equipment. (5) The Pioneer does not swear nor drink nor smoke.²⁴

Surely, no one can quarrel with such an excellent philosophy for boys and girls. The great contrast between the Scout movement and the Pioneers is that, when scouting days are over, that is about all that there is to it; but the Pioneers can look forward to becoming members of the *Komsomol*, just as the latter is preparatory for party membership. This is such a goal, such an incentive, that the Pioneers have been a tremendously strong force in inculcating the ideals and principles of communism.

²⁴ Beatrice King, *op. cit.* pp. 248-249.

The third group is that of the Octobrists, which admits children between the ages of 8 and 11. It is the recruiting agency for the Pioneers, and young Pioneers are the leaders of the small groups of 5, which are organized into larger groups of 25 under a *Komsomol* leader.

Beatrice King²⁹ sums up in able fashion the achievements and contributions of the communist form of education to Soviet life. She tells us that the present Soviet forces who have performed such deeds of heroism, courage, and self-sacrifice consist of men who are the products of Soviet education. It has also stimulated the ordinary citizen to emulate the men at the front. In general, all have been spurred on to an eager desire for knowledge and culture and to strive for high intellectual, artistic, and moral standards. In order to reach the multitudes, 46 new alphabets had to be created so that schooling might be brought to the national minorities. One instance of the educational revolution that has taken place is the Republic of Uzbekistan, with 29 higher education institutions, 105 technicums, 44 theaters, and 1,300,000 pupils in 1940 as compared with 16,000 in 1914.

It may truly be said of the Soviet Union that the people in darkness have seen a great light. Today they excel in the theater, opera, and ballet; in art they hold their own with the rest of the world; and they are now their own engineers and technicians. It is, indeed, a magnificent accomplishment with respect to the attainment of Soviet objectives, training in isolationism, indoctrination in the communist ideology, and the dignifying of labor. What we object to is the completely authoritarian method under which the program is carried out, and the absence of any attention given to the building of a spirit of international good will. Russia is an example of nationalism gone to seed.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. Make a diagrammatic scheme of the educational system in one of the following countries and give its chief curricular characteristics:

- a. Denmark
- b. Italy

- c. Sweden
- d. Turkey

²⁹ Beatrice King, "Developments Since 1936," *Times* (London) *Educational Supplement*, Aug. 16, 1941, p. 384.

e. Iran
f. Pakistan
g. India

h. Japan
i. Canada
j. Egypt

2. Trace the evidences of French and German influence in Latin American school systems.
3. Describe the operation and success of the "One teach one" plan in Mexico.
4. What evidences do you find of the influence of the British, French, and German school systems on our own?
5. What are the chief contributions of the British, French, German, and Russian secondary school systems to our own?
6. Assemble arguments to demonstrate the statement, "Man is beginning to recognize the worth of the individual all over the world."

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The Educational Ladder: Presecondary Education

THE students in a class in freshman college English were not, in the opinion of the instructor, doing very well. In fact, they didn't seem to comprehend what he was trying to explain to them. After several unsuccessful attempts to elicit a spark of understanding from them, he burst out in exasperation, "I would like to know what kind of schools you came from. Whatever they were, they certainly didn't teach you anything." And then the diatribe would flow on, putting more and more blame on the inadequate preparation given by the secondary school.

The following verses, whose source is unknown, express the same sentiment.

Who's to Blame

The College President:

Such rawness in a student is a shame,
But lack of preparation is the blame.

The High School Principal:

Good heavens! What crudity! The boy's a fool,
The fault of course is with the grammar school.

The Grammar School Principal:

Would that from such a dunce I might be spared!
They send them up to me so unprepared.

The Primary Teacher:

Poor Kindergarten blockhead! And they call
That "Preparation." Worse than none at all.

The Kindergarten Teacher:

Never such lack of training did I see!
What sort of person can the mother be?

The Mother:

You stupid child! But then you're not to blame;
Your father's family are all the same.

When things don't go just the way we want them to, we fail to see the beam that is in our own eye, but find it so easy to see the mote in our brother's eye. The blame must be placed somewhere. Surely, we ourselves can't be responsible. It has to be somebody else, and what more obvious individual could this be but the one who preceded us in the particular situation. This feeling of superiority is a sop to our own ego. We just can't let our own selves down. There has to be an explanation that has its source outside of our own control.

Such a complex may be based on ignorance or a false sense of standards. Ignorance is the ivory tower of self-satisfied smugness. Each group represented by the six complaining individuals listed above knows little, if anything of the *modus operandi* of the preceding preparatory group. Parents are unacquainted with the laws of eugenics, the elementary school with the family, the junior high school with the elementary school, and so on up the educational ladder.

Since each level persists in remaining ignorant of the achievements expected on and by the previous level, it falls into the second error, that of setting up standards of its own, regardless of the knowledge and achievements brought to it by those who come from the lower level. Each level says, "Folks, this is what you are expected to know when you come to us. We don't care how far you are from meeting our standards, because it's up to you to meet them. And woe be unto you, if you don't." This point of view is postulated on the theory that "man was made for the Sabbath." An institution tends easily and readily to isolate itself from the life of which it is a part and to forget that it has a duty to perform in becoming ac-

quainted with the previous history of those who come to enjoy its benefits. This is a universal fault.

What can be done to correct it? The same thing that is done in introducing any two strangers to each other. Each group needs to learn what the other one is doing. When this acquaintanceship has been established, the next step is to discuss, in understanding fashion, ways of developing a gradual transition from one group to the next. Mutual adjustments cannot be brought about through long distance recrimination. The disputants must be brought face to face. Then, when they get to know each other better, they can work out their differences—if not all, at least many of them.

And so it is with regard to our school system. Those of us who are engaged on the secondary level must acquaint ourselves with the nature of the work of the preceding grades, if we are to accommodate our offerings to the achievement expectancies of the boys and girls who come to us from them. We simply cannot assume an air of haughty superiority that would disdain to be aware of what went on in their previous educational history. Nor can we on the secondary level set up standards that are so beyond what these entering pupils are capable of doing that failure stares them in the face from the very beginning. In order, then, that we may learn something of the elementary school that prepares boys and girls to continue with their education on the secondary level, we shall now delve into that problem.

Early Relations

The term "educational ladder" is used advisedly in connection with the American school system of today. It was not an apt description that might have been used three centuries ago, because there was no ladder at that time. The Latin grammar school was an independent institution. The only requirement for admission was that the boy be able to read. These accomplishments could be acquired at home or in the dame school. The latter was an informal type of teaching carried on in her own home by some woman who could give the time, for a slight compensation, to teaching a group of youngsters to read, first the alphabet, and then the hornbook¹ and exercises of a religious content.

¹ "A kind of child's primer—consisting typically of a sheet of parchment, or, later, of paper, mounted on a thin wooden board, having on it the alphabet and

So those boys who entered the Latin grammar school secured their reading experience at home or in the dame school. But they were not the only ones who were taught how to read. If you refer back to a previous chapter you will find the reference to the Law of 1647, which made mandatory the establishment of reading and writing schools whenever a community had expanded to the size of 50 householders or families. This school was the forerunner of the district or township school. In New England its chief purpose was to teach youngsters to read and write so as to be intelligent members of the church-state community. They should be able to read the Bible and to read and sing the Psalms.

Here is the point to remember. The boys who went to the district, or reading and writing, school were of the same age and environment as those who went to the Latin grammar school, but they did not go to the district school in preparation for their admission to the grammar school. The two schools were parallel institutions, just as are the common and secondary schools of France. It is difficult for us today to realize that there ever was a time when it wasn't the most natural thing in the world for a boy to go to what we call an elementary school as a legal requirement for his admission to the junior and senior high schools. Today he must present evidence of a minimum amount of achievement in reading, writing, computation, history, nature study, and so on before he is allowed to enter. But that was not the case in colonial times. The path of the boy who was destined for the university led him to the grammar school; that of the boy who was to become the sound pillar of the church led to the reading and writing school.

Thus we see inaugurated the dualism and parallelism that have been responsible for much of the poor articulation between elementary and secondary schools. It took from two to three centuries to bridge the gap between the two because of the mind set developed by the original relationship, one school for the intellectually and socially privileged, and the other for the less privileged.

The district school became, as we had said, the characteristic school in sparsely settled communities, and, since it emphasized only

other rudiments, such as the digits and often the Lord's prayer, and protected by a sheet of transparent horn." *Webster's New International Dictionary*, 2d ed., G. & C. Merriam Co., Springfield, Mass., 1932.

the rudiments and fundamentals of learning, it set the model for our rural schools. In the southern states there were no elementary schools because of slavery and the plantation system, but there were parochial schools in the mid-Atlantic states where religious freedom permitted different religious sects to practice their particular types of religious observances. Since these sects held to the same belief as that of the New England Puritans, viz., that the people should be able to read and interpret the Bible, it was to be expected that they would establish their own schools for this purpose. The difference was that, in New England, the town or district controlled the school; in the middle colonies it was the church group.

All during the colonial period, even until after the War of Independence, elementary schooling was a haphazard affair. Even in New England, where the Law of 1647 and subsequent laws had commanded communities to establish district schools, there were no laws passed to compel anybody to go to these schools. In fact, it was not until 1852, only a century ago, that Massachusetts was the first state to pass a law compelling boys and girls of a certain age to attend school.

Charity Schools

So far as the rural communities were concerned, it is easy for us to see why voluntary attendance was the common practice and why the parents objected to compulsory attendance. It was only during the severe winter months that the sons and daughters were not needed at home and on the farm. And, when they were needed, there was just no time for them to attend school. But in the cities it was different. Here the children of those who could not afford to have them instructed privately actually roamed the streets. In the latter part of the eighteenth and the first part of the nineteenth centuries, social conditions became so bad that various philanthropic organizations attempted to alleviate the situation by establishing what were variously called charity, free, pauper, and Sunday schools. All of these came to us from England. In fact, in the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, a branch of the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, we had an English organization, fired by missionary zeal, that came over to our shores and established schools to further the cause of the Anglican Church. Its aims were

to prepare better trained clergymen for its churches, to establish churches in new areas and revive those that were functioning poorly, and to use their schools to train children in the Anglican faith.² This philanthropic and religious group supported schools in all the colonies, and maintained throughout most of the eighteenth century a type of elementary school that closely approximated the work of the district school of New England. From 25 to 50 percent of those enrolled did not pay any tuition. Reading, writing, some arithmetic, and religion formed the course of instruction. Because of the religious element the attendance was restricted to those of the Anglican faith.

Charity schools were maintained generally by other church groups. Parents who could afford to have their children given home instruction employed tutors. There were also private venture schools for those who did not use the tutorial plan.

The Sunday school was another loan from England, where child labor and a long work day had made it impossible to provide any educational opportunities even in the form of philanthropic charity schools. Sunday was the only available day in the week for these youngsters to get any form of instruction. The result was the establishment of Sunday classes to teach these child workers the fundamentals of reading, writing, and religious instruction. This plan was adopted by us toward the end of the eighteenth century and was the forerunner of that Sunday school that became the medium by which churches gave regular instruction in the religious practices and doctrines of their particular faiths.

A fourth type of philanthropic elementary education was carried on by school societies, the most famous of which was The Public School Society of New York, whose earlier name was the New York Free School Society. It was composed of a group of socially minded individuals who were willing to contribute a certain sum annually in order to provide schooling for those needy children whose educational interests were not cared for by any church group or religious society. This society, and others like it in the leading cities of the country, did a great deal to prepare their fellow citizens for publicly supported, free, elementary schools, because those citizens who in-

² Paul Monroe, *A Cyclopaedia of Education*, The Macmillan Company, 1913, vol. 5.

dorsed these school societies were the ones who were the leaders in their communities. It would be only natural for them to sponsor the transfer of the schools they were supporting to the public at large.

The Lancastrian System

A fifth movement that gave impetus to the establishment of public elementary schools was another British innovation, the Lancastrian monitorial system of instruction. Two men, Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster, hit upon the idea of using monitors, or advanced students, to teach the younger. Bell had developed his scheme in India, and Lancaster in England. Both happened upon the idea about the same time, but, through force of circumstances, Lancaster's name became attached to the system. Only one master teacher was needed to teach as many boys as could be accommodated in the room in which the teaching was done. He was assisted by two sets of monitors, one to help with the discipline, and the other to do the teaching to groups of not more than 10. The monitors received their instruction from the teacher. Then they passed it on to their groups. Since it was necessary to place the boys on appropriate levels, so that they might make satisfactory advancement in their studies, an appropriate system of grading had to be developed. You see, this was mass education at low cost. Consequently, some method of progressive grouping of the boys had to be developed, so that those who were in the group of a particular monitor might be able to work on the same lessons at the same time.

It is easy to understand why this monitorial system found favor with the private and philanthropic organizations that were endeavoring to provide elementary education for the children of the poor. The expenses were so reasonable that many children could be taught at a minimum cost. Furthermore, the organization or society could provide and foster more schools for the same amount of money that could be used to support a small number of small schools. The drawbacks to such a method of organization and teaching were: the strict discipline that had to be maintained to keep such a large group of boys in one room in order; the formal and rigid methods of teaching that had to be employed in order to assure that the work was done; the consequent overemphasis on memoriter learning; and, since the monitors really did not know much more than those they were teaching, shallow and superficial results.

Nevertheless, the monitorial schools that were fostered by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel and by school societies served as one of the most effective entering wedges in enlisting the support of the public in elementary education in that they could show that such schools could be carried on without imposing too heavy a burden on the taxpayer.

Putting together all the forces that were at work, public in New England, some public but mostly private elsewhere, we find a growing demand for the establishment of elementary schools as a regular part of the free, public school system. And, just about the time that this movement was taking shape, the public high school had come upon the scene, partly as a protest against the private academy, but largely, as we have previously stated, because of the rising tide of democracy that characterized the second and third decades of the nineteenth century. Since there were district schools and privately run elementary schools, a pupil who entered the new high school was supposed to have prepared himself in elementary school subjects so that he could pass the entrance examinations to high school.

Objection to Public Education

It seems incredible to us, accustomed as we are to our system of publicly supported elementary, secondary, and higher institutions of learning, that there could have existed a vociferous majority opposed to the establishment of free schools. We have become so habituated to the idea of an educational ladder that we probably do not value or appreciate highly enough all the wonderful advantages that we enjoy as compared with those who lived only a little over a century ago. In a previous chapter we fought the battle, as it were, for a free secondary school. Here the struggle centers around the establishment of a free elementary school. It is true that, ever since Massachusetts Colony Laws of 1642 and 1647, there have been vestiges of some form of reading and writing schools, but frontier life tended to make the support of such schools a precarious one, while the gulf between the rich and the poor tended to induce the wealthy parents to send their children to tuition schools or else employ private tutors for them. One consequence of such a situation was a decidedly lessened or even antagonistic attitude on their part toward paying any money out of their own pockets in the form of taxes to enable the children of the poor to enjoy the benefits of free, public education. Another

was that the children of parents who were financially unable to pay for their education in "private" schools had to be satisfied with three alternatives: (1) to enjoy a very poor type of schooling; (2) to go to one of the charity or pauper schools previously referred to; or (3) to go to no school at all, because no school was available.

It is true that legislative provisions were made for publicly supported elementary schools, but the public at large had not yet been awakened to its duty to discharge its own responsibilities in this matter. Abundant evidence can be found of the fight waged by individuals and by groups to stir the people from their apathy and bring them to a realization of the place that free public education plays in a republican form of government.

In his bill "For the More General Diffusion of Knowledge," introduced into the legislature of Virginia in 1779, Thomas Jefferson said:

Whereas it is generally true that the people will be happiest whose laws are best and are best administered, and that laws will be wisely formed and honestly administered, in proportion as those who form and administer them are wise and honest; whence it becomes expedient for promoting the public's happiness, that those persons whom nature has endowed with genius and virtue should be rendered by liberal education worthy to receive and able to guard the sacred deposit of the rights and liberties of their fellow-citizens, and that they should be called to that charge without regard to wealth, birth, or other accidental condition or circumstance; but the indigence of the greater number disabling them from so educating, at their own expense, those of their children whom nature hath fitly formed and disposed to become useful instruments for the public, it is better that such should be sought for and educated at the common expense of all, than that the happiness of all should be confined to the weak or wicked.

What happened in Pennsylvania is a good illustration of the difficulties in which all the colonies and early states were involved in promoting the cause of public elementary education. The constitution of 1790 had this statement:

The legislature shall, as soon as conveniently may be, provide, by law, for the establishment of schools throughout the State in such manner that the poor may be taught gratis.

In 1830, the following remonstrance was published:

It is now forty years since the adoption of the constitution of Pennsylvania, and although that instrument strongly recommends that provision

be made for our youth at public expense, yet during that long period has the salutary and patriotic obligation been disregarded by our legislative authority, and thousands are now suffering the consequences of this disregard to the public welfare on the part of our rulers.

It is true, that some attempts have been made to remedy the omission in two or three districts of the state, but they have proved ineffectual. The very spirit in which these provisions have been made not only defeats the object intended, but tends also to draw still broader the line of *distinction between the rich and the poor* [italics mine]. All who receive the limited knowledge imparted by the present system of public education are *looked on as paupers* [italics mine], drawing from a fount which they have in no wise contributed toward creating. The spirit of independence and feeling in which all participate, cause the honest and industrious poor to reject a proffered bounty that connects with its reception a seeming disgrace.³

In 1833, Governor Wolf delivered a message to the Pennsylvania legislature, a message that resulted, in 1834, in the passage of a law establishing a public elementary school system 40 years *after* a committee of the House of Representatives had made a similar recommendation. Governor Wolf said, in part:

According to the returns of the last census, we have, in Pennsylvania, 581,180 children under the age of 15 years, and 149,080 between the ages of 15 and 20 years, forming an aggregate of 730,260 juvenile persons of both sexes, under the age of 20 years, most of them requiring more or less instruction. And yet with all this numerous youthful population growing up around us, who in a few years are to be our rulers and our lawmakers, the defenders of our country, and the pillars of the State, and upon whose education will depend in great measure the preservation of our liberties and the safety of the republic, we have neither schools established for their instruction, nor provisions made by law for establishing them as enjoined by the Constitution.⁴

The Rate Bill

The point we are trying to get across is that there was some form of what we call elementary education at all times and in all places, but that a gulf had arisen between those who could afford to have their children educated at their own expense and those who could

³ From the "Address of the City and County Convention to the Working Men of the State of Pennsylvania," as printed in the *Mechanics' Free Press*, July 10, 1830, Philadelphia.

⁴ Reported in J. P. Wickersham, *A History of Education in Pennsylvania*, Inquirer Publishing Co., Lancaster, 1888, p. 140.

not. Even when towns provided for some form of elementary schooling, it was customary in many instances to charge parents by what was called a rate bill. In Baltimore, in 1867, it was \$1.00 per term. In Louisville, in 1830, the first two years were free, but the charge for the primary grades was \$4.00 and for the grammar grades \$6.00. In New York, in 1825, it was about $\frac{1}{2}$ cent a day for each day in attendance. In an editorial in his *New York Weekly Tribune* on October 24, 1849, Horace Greeley wrote:

At present these schools are properly supported by state funds, partly by a tax on property, and partly by a tax on each scholar known as the *rate bill*. Insignificant as the sums charged in rate bills may seem, they yet bear very hard on many a poor working man with a large family of children. Five or six dollars a year are often charged in rate bills against a man whose earnings for the year, though he works hard and steadily, falls short of \$200.

Incredible as it may seem, the fight to abolish the rate bill in the elementary school was a tougher one than it had been on the secondary level. An acrimonious debate arose between those schools that might be classed as charity schools and those which charged the rate bill. The first group claimed that they were serving a real need not met by the second group; the latter assumed an air of superiority over the former.⁵

It was not until the 1830's and after, a whole decade subsequent to the opening of the first public secondary school, that states and communities seriously and conscientiously took steps to establish and implement elementary schools as a public trust. Since legislatures were slow in setting up state systems of education, the elementary and secondary schools of the early nineteenth century developed independently of each other and even between themselves. That is to say, so far as the elementary schools were concerned, there was no agreement or uniformity as to the length of the school year in terms of months or as to the course in terms of years. They were 7, 8, or 9 years in length. The length of terms or semester was anywhere from 12 to 18 weeks, with no compulsion on the part of a student to attend any specified period of time. There was no such thing as the graded school with which you are acquainted.

⁵ Paul Monroe, *Founding of the American Public School System*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1940.

The Graded System

The movement toward what we know today as graded schools didn't start until a little over a century ago. In the 1818 New York report of the trustees of two free schools on the Lancastrian plan we find that, from 1800 children, there were promoted that year

To Writing on Paper	220
To Reading in the Bible	138
To Addition and Subtraction	150
To Multiplication and Division	60
To the 4 Compound Rules	26
To Reduction	12
To the Rule of Three	5

The major determinant, in this instance, for promotion seemed to be based on advancement in the performance of arithmetic operations. The Boston School Law of 1789 provided writing schools, where *children learned to write and do arithmetic, including vulgar and decimal fractions*, and reading schools, where they were taught to spell, accent, and read both prose and verse and were instructed in English grammar and composition. This law wasn't really acted upon until 1818, when primary schools were established with four classes. In the fourth were those in alphabet and monosyllables; in the third those in two or more syllables; in the second, those in easy reading; and in the first, those in the Testament.⁶ In Providence, in 1820, the regulation was that the scholars should be put in separate classes according to their several improvements, each sex by itself. The report of the Lowell, Massachusetts, School Committee in 1841 recognized three grades of public schools, primary, grammar, and high.

The Primary schools are taught entirely by females and receive children under seven years of age and *until they are qualified* [italics mine] for admission to the Grammar School. . . . The Grammar Schools receive those who can bring a certificate or pass an examination, in the common stops and abbreviations, and in easy reading and spelling. These schools are divided into two departments—one for boys, and the other for girls, and are taught by a male principal and assistant, two female assistants and

⁶ Henry Barnard, *J. Education*, vol. 19, 1869, p. 420.

writing master. . . . The studies are the common branches of an English education.

At the turn of the century the distinguishing schools in Boston were the writing and reading schools, in different buildings and each having the pupils half a day. Even when new buildings were constructed, the upper room was the reading room, the more advanced, and the lower the writing room, with boys and girls alternating between the two.

These few illustrations indicate that the graded system was far different from the well-organized levels that exist today. Each town and city was trying to adapt what it had to the demands of the increasing school population. At least four levels seemed to be agreed upon, although their names might not all be the same: primary, intermediate, grade, and high. The length of the first three varied from 7 to 9 years, with eight years being the most common.

Interesting arguments have arisen as to the reason for the 8-year arrangement.

The organization of the elementary course in this final form (entering at 6, and completing at 14) was so nearly identical with the plan evolved among the German States and fully established prior to the inauguration of a graded system in any American State as alone to make probable the indebtedness to Germany, even though no account be taken of the eagerness with which American leaders of the period sought knowledge respecting German practice or of the high esteem in which the school system of that country was held by them.⁷

There is no one who can say with positive exactness that we owe our 8-grade system, which, in spite of variations, became the most common type of organization, to what was done in Prussia, but the circumstantial evidence certainly points that way. M. Victor Cousin was sent by his country, France, in 1831, to make a study of the German system. His report was widely disseminated in this country. In 1821, the Free School Society of New York was instructed to study the German schools. President A. D. Bache of Girard College spent two years in Europe and came out with a voluminous report. The General Assembly of Ohio asked Calvin E. Stowe to make a report on the educational systems of Europe. He made his report in 1837.

⁷ Frank Forest Bunker, *The Reorganization of the American Public School System*, Bull. 8, Bureau of Education, 1916, Washington, D.C., p. 35.

Henry Barnard visited Germany in 1836. Dr. Stephen Olin spent three years in Europe and commented that "The Prussian system of education is certainly the most perfect in existence, whether the higher, the intermediate, or common grades of learning be considered." In 1843, Horace Mann visited schools in Europe.

It was not until the 1840's that elementary schools began to be organized by grades. It is claimed that the Quincy Grammar School of Boston in 1847 was the first such school in America to be organized on the German model. Prior to that time it was customary for the teacher, if the group was small, to teach pupils individually, or, if it were large, to have assistants, to each one of whom would be assigned the task of teaching all the pupils in a particular subject. In fact, it was the increasing number of pupils coming to elementary school, from the 1840's on, that brought about the necessity of providing more rooms for the pupils, especially since it was around this time that the Lancastrian method of instruction was being abandoned. It was only natural to conjecture that the increase in the number of rooms would be attended by some attempt at sorting out the pupils so that the younger would be together, and so on up the line. The possible length of time that children would be expected to remain in the elementary school would be another factor. It is here that the German leaving age of 14 might have had its influence.⁶

By 1860, 9 out of 24 school systems had settled on an 8-year elementary school, 8 on 9 years, 4 on 7, and 3 on 10, 6 and 8½, respectively. Hartford, Connecticut, was one of the last school systems to hold out for a 9-year elementary school. Gradually the 8-year school won out in the north, with the 7-year school remaining in the south. But even here, i.e., in the south, the 8-year elementary school is supplanting the 7-year one.

Demands for Reorganization

The idea that educators became dissatisfied with the 8-4 arrangement of the public school system has already been dealt with

⁶ Stephen Olin, *The Life and Letters of Stephen Olin*, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1854, p. 324.

⁷ I am proposing another suggestion, one that might also have had weight, although I have never come across any direct references to it. Most school buildings were four-square in architecture, with a basement and two stories. There would be a room in each of the four corners on each of the two floors. Two times four is eight. Eight rooms—eight grades.

in the reports of the Committee of Ten, the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, and the Committee on Economy of Time in Education.¹⁰ Especially significant were the recommendations of the last committee, because they came at a time when some school systems in this country were doing the very things that were being proposed. The first two decades of the twentieth century were the proving ground for testing out the new theories, which were centered largely on these hypotheses:

1. The last two years of the 8-year elementary school did not produce any material advancement in performing the fundamental skills.
2. The subject-matter of these two years was not significant and interesting enough to hold pupils in school after the eighth grade.
3. Boys and girls in grades 7, 8, and 9 were more homogeneous with respect to mental and physical development.
4. Work of a secondary school nature could well be introduced 2 years earlier.
5. Such work should accomplish two ends, that of retaining pupils a year longer in school, and that of making their transition to the secondary school easier. The so-called gap between the two systems would thereby be narrowed.

What had started out, then, as a movement to begin secondary education two years lower down the educational ladder and initiate college education a corresponding 2 years earlier became, instead, an extension of secondary education to 6 years and a reduction of elementary schooling to 6. The complete 12-year system remained. Of course, any innovation such as the reorganization of the American school system would encounter enough opposition to make its progress a slow one. Nevertheless, during the past four decades, the reorganized schools, as they were called in Table 14,¹¹ have now come to outnumber the regular schools. There is no consistency, however, in the organization itself, although 6-year secondary schools include, as their name signifies, grades 7 through 12. But a junior high school may embrace grades 7 through 9, or only grades 7 and 8. Correspondingly, the senior high school may be a 3- or a 4-year school.

Fundamentally, it is not so much the type of organization that

¹⁰ Chap 5.

¹¹ P. 82.

counts as it is what is done in grades 7, 8, and 9. The necessity to look upon the junior high school as a means of enticing youngsters to continue into the secondary school no longer is a valid one. School attendance laws that have raised the age of compulsory education to 16 years are responsible for this. The junior high school, which at its best takes the average youngster only through his fifteenth year, can no longer claim a holding power effect. It must, then, look to other purposes for its continued existence. These purposes can resolve themselves into two: the emphasis on content that is of a secondary nature, and a compromise in the use of both elementary and secondary methods of classroom management and administration. That is why the statement was made in the first part of this paragraph that intimated that these two purposes could be accomplished in grades 7 and 8, no matter what the particular organization might be. In other words, it is the spirit behind these two purposes that is pervading grades 7, 8, and 9 no matter where they are located.

Teacher Preparation for the Junior High School

The pity of it all is that our teacher education institutions have not yet sufficiently awakened to the importance of paying the attention that is needed to preparing prospective teachers for this area. A random sampling of state teacher certification requirements shows that in Arizona the requirements for teaching in the junior high school are the same as those for the high school, in Colorado the same as for the elementary school, in Delaware none, in Indiana, Iowa, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, Utah, and Virginia, the same as for secondary. Maryland and Minnesota do require a special course dealing with the junior high school.

If beginning teachers teach in grades 7, 8, and 9 with no background as to what they are supposed to do and why they are supposed to do it, it is not hard to understand why this area is not functioning the way it should. I call it the neglected area in modern secondary education, and claim that *the junior high school is the sink of educational iniquity.*

Drawbacks to the Junior High School

The reason for the above statement is that some of the original purposes for the introduction of the junior high school idea are no

longer valid. It is not necessary to assume that the junior high school is our last chance to do something for the preadolescent. Such was the case 40 years ago, when the average upper age limit for compulsory education was 14.5 years. It does seem obvious that, if we knew that we were going to have many of our boys and girls in school only that long, we would want to give them everything we could think of. The result was that we literally crammed down their intellectual gullets a type of academic pabulum that they could neither ingest nor digest. We were so anxious to do everything we could think of while we had them with us that we violated our own theories of child growth and development. And we haven't changed much in this respect today.

There is no statistical proof for the following statement, which is based on observation and discussion with others rather than on means, modes, and standard deviations. Somewhere along the climb up the educational ladder the life adjustment education program seems to falter. During the 6 years of elementary schooling youngsters seem to enjoy the activities in which they engage.¹² They are happy, active, and seemingly understanding in what they are doing. But, when they come to the junior high school, or its equivalent, interest lags, behavior problems arise, and they seem only to "see as through a glass darkly." The social studies deal with problems and events that they do not comprehend; language arts speak a language they do not use; and mathematics is concerned with adult activities. These three areas are enough to make these teen-agers confused. If, they say, school is like this, why, the sooner we can get out of it, the happier we shall be. With such a situation confronting us, we should make a serious study of our shortcomings so that the junior high school period can continue the purposiveness characteristic of the elementary school.

Articulation Between Elementary and Secondary Education

In spite of protestations on the part of certain elementary education theorists that each grade level is not a preparation for the next one, common sense dictates that anything we do today is in preparation for the morrow. Where we might disagree is on the time element of tomorrow. We can look at it as a restricted matter, viz., the next 24

¹² For our particular purpose we are not here interested in the exceptions.

hours, or we can consider it as a far distant goal, such as 24 years hence. The future can be immediate or it can be at the end of the rainbow. Barring mental retardation or death, every child in the first grade looks forward to going into the second grade, the second grader into the third grade, and so on, until he plans to quit school. The problem doesn't loom insurmountable in his eyes during the time that he is in the unit organization of the particular school system that he is attending. But when he goes from one unit to the next, such as from elementary to secondary, or from secondary to college, he is bound to find that things are different. If they are too different, he may become so frustrated in his attempts to adjust himself to the new environment that he simply gives up and quits. On the theory that these differences should be minimized the school does attempt to improve the articulation between the new units.¹² The chief obstacles to good articulation have been found to be:

1. Change from one teacher to several teachers
2. Classes in several rooms instead of in one room
3. Change in names of subjects, e.g., algebra instead of arithmetic, biology instead of nature study
4. Free periods in library or study hall
5. Classes meeting only two or three times a week
6. Adjustment to new acquaintances from other schools
7. More homework and independent study
8. More clubs and cliques
9. Less personal relationship with teachers
10. A gap between what was learned in the elementary school and what the pupil was expected to know when he entered high school.¹⁴

Any one of the above 10 items taken by itself would probably not be too deterrent a factor in causing adjustment difficulties when the pupil enters high school, but a combination of any 5 of them could probably be disastrous. Parents and older brothers and sisters seem to take a sadistic delight in telling the 14-year-old that he is going to find things a whole lot different when he goes to high school. If, say they, he has had an easy time in the elementary school, just let him wait till he gets to high school. Things won't be so easy. He'll

¹² Articulation is good where the transfer from one unit to the next is easy; it is bad when the transfer is made with difficulty and hardship.

¹⁴ Sometimes erroneously called poor preparation.

have "algebra," Latin, history, and science, all of them tough subjects. And the teachers will be tough, too.

It's bad enough to go into a new and oftentimes strange environment without being negatively conditioned by one's dotting (?) relatives. That is one reason that the junior high school claims to narrow the breach. The emphasis on the homeroom tends to counteract departmentalized teaching. The names of new subjects are introduced in grades 7 and 8 with the term "general" prefixed to them—general science, general language, general mathematics, and general shop. Supervised, or directed, study takes care of what would otherwise be free periods. Orientation guidance is given in the homeroom. The homeroom becomes a social unit where boys and girls from different schools can get acquainted with each other. Pupils have the opportunity to join clubs and organize a student council. Homerooms and clubs sponsor parties as an introduction to social life. Tests are given for guidance purposes and to discover how much remedial work, if any, needs to be given in the first year of high school.

It is true that not all school systems follow or need to follow these practices. In a consolidated school that houses all 12 grades, the transition from elementary to high school is much less abrupt than in a city system where youngsters from 10 different elementary schools may all be going to the same high school. But in spite of all that we may do to ease the situation, there will still be found those who cannot jump the gap. And it is possible that the junior high school itself may be responsible for an extra gap, in that sixth graders will have to make adjustments to the junior high school just as the products of the latter have to make the senior high adjustments. New automobile models often have what are called "bugs" in them, something whose maloperation even the engineers couldn't foresee. So it is with experiments in the field of school organization. They are tried out in the hope that they will perform satisfactorily, but it takes experience in the field to discover their weaknesses. It is our hope that a program like that of life adjustment education will someday improve methods of articulation between the various forms of elementary and secondary education.

The Curriculum of the Elementary School

There are two points of view that dominate the thinking of those responsible for organizing the curriculum of the elementary school.

One considers subject-matter areas as the foundation for learning, the other advocates what they call the activity program, a theory that is actually based on the educative processes of primitive society, and which is manifested in its most extreme form in the child-centered school. It stems from exhaustive studies which educators and psychologists have made during the last 40 years on the nature of the child and his development. Many valuable contributions have been made to a better understanding on our part of the ways in which children learn. This knowledge has been put to good use in the ways in which we now teach them to read, to write, to spell, to reckon, to express themselves, and to make their own investigations.

The place of subject matter is discussed in chapter 11. We refer you to that presentation for the arguments in support of its retention in our schools. To quote Dewey, "We learn by doing"; that's true. But we must also learn something. It is on this point that those who criticize our schools attack us most severely. They claim that their children, when they leave school, can't read properly, can't spell, can't do arithmetic, and don't know anything.¹⁵ An example of what is being said is the following statement. "Louisville employers, interviewed for a Louisville paper about the 1953 high school graduates, said they have a better general knowledge than graduates of a few years ago, but cannot read, write, spell or add a column of figures and get the same answer twice." For generations we have looked upon the elementary school as the place where boys and girls are grounded in what we call the fundamentals. The secondary school is expected to take these same boys and girls, and by building upon these fundamentals, prepare them for their individual and citizenship activities and responsibilities. It will have a hard time achieving this goal if those who come from the elementary school lack the necessary tools to carry on.

There is undoubtedly a basis for the accusations and charges brought against our schools, and part of the blame must be shared by the elementary school. It is only fair to say, however, that it is the extremists in education who are responsible for the indictment of the public school system. They have gone overboard to such an extent that they have given the impression that subject matter does

¹⁵ Arthur E. Bestor, *Educational Wastelands*, University of Illinois Press, Urbana, 1953; Albert Lynd, *Quackery in the Public Schools*, Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1953.

not count, that it is the child's indefinable urge to do what he wants to do that should be the determining factor as to what he should be taught. A mother, writing in *Harper's Magazine* some years ago said that her little daughter had come home from school one day and had related with great glee how Mary had asked the teacher, "Do we have to do what we want to do today?" An overabundance of this soft pedagogy has permeated the thinking of a vociferous group of elementary school theorists, and that is why we hear so much from them. Those who steadily "fish and cut bait" keep on doing their daily tasks of trying to get their pupils to learn something with little or no fanfare. They cause no ripples on the stream of learning.

Parents are the ones who are paying school taxes and whose children are the recipients of the benefits accruing from the use of these taxes. They have a right to know what, how, and why their children are being educated the way they are. If they are not kept informed, if they are given the impression that elementary education consists in the application of certain esoteric formulas that the parent is too dumb to comprehend, they may slumber in their ignorance for a while; but when they do awaken to what is going on in the proportion to which more and more of them are themselves receiving more schooling, they will turn on the schools and blast them both for what they are doing and for what they are not doing.

What will result from the antagonisms now manifest must be a compromise between the two schools of thought. It is impossible in this world of ours to get very far without knowing something. The basic knowledges have been and will continue to be reading, writing, speaking, spelling, and reckoning. These are skills that can be acquired only by various methods of drill. They cannot be mastered incidentally, any more than one can learn to play a violin incidentally. But mastery doesn't necessarily have to imply drudgery. It is against this last-named state that most reactions to subject matter have arisen. And properly so. The doctrine of formal discipline was just as vicious in determining the elementary curriculum as we shall find to be its influence with respect to the secondary. Subjects were taught for the good of the unregenerate souls of the damned or near-damned. They didn't have to understand what they were being taught. They took what was handed out to them and smiled when they took it.

In order to get away from this adult-imposed curriculum, some elementary people went to the opposite extreme. They decried the formalism of the schools and everything that went with it. They would have nothing to do with subjects as such because subjects were tainted by their contact with intensive methods of drill. Teachers would discover the passing whims of their charges and fashion them into an activity curriculum. Just as happens in all instances of going to extremes, the neo-theorists abandoned much that was good in the old-fashioned school. Certainly, there couldn't be complete worthlessness in practices that had persisted for thousands of years. There must have been some merit in what had gone before. It is to salvage whatever was good in bygone years that we have suggested the necessity for compromise, which consists in learning the fundamental skills in connection with subject-matter material that is meaningful to the child on each appropriate level of his schooling. In other words, the child must learn the mechanics of reading according to the most up-to-date methods,¹⁶ in connection with content materials in reading selections, social studies, nature study, and mathematical experiences that come within the realm of his experience and understanding. Much needs to be done in the way of research in order to bring these two viewpoints to operate successfully on each grade level.

And that is just what is happening in the elementary school of today. During the last decade many leaders among the elementary educators have, so to speak, taken the bit in their teeth, realizing that a fundamental aspect of learning had been neglected in the ultra-activity movement, and have themselves worked on the compromise that has been previously suggested. The fundamentals of reading, writing, spelling, speaking, and reckoning are not handled incidentally. They now receive the attention due them as the necessary tools that man must use in order to get along in our type of civilized society. At the same time, elementary educators are retaining the meaningful phases of the activity movement that involve the pupils in cooperative planning not of what they would like to do but of what *should* be done in order to solve a problem or reach a certain goal.

Now here is something for the critics of our schools to bear in

¹⁶ Involving phonics so that he may pronounce words that are new to him.

mind. They judge our products largely by the present graduates of our high schools, who, we must confess, come under the influence of the incidental type of teaching in vogue when these boys and girls were in the elementary school. In a few more years we hope that the story will be a different one, when the present group of elementary school boys and girls will be judged by their accomplishments and skills.

You who will be teaching in the junior or senior high school must not expect all the boys and girls who come to you from the elementary school to meet what you consider your standards in whatever subject you happen to be teaching them. The school should assist all of you by administering diagnostic reading tests to all entering pupils. If any of the pupils have scores that are so low that they cannot satisfactorily do your work, classes in remedial reading should be established. You yourself should have available books of a lower reading level than that of the textbook you are using. If you are teaching general science, you should have on hand nature study books used in the grades. If you are teaching biology, general science books would be supplementary readers. In this connection it is advisable that you give a diagnostic test in your subject area in order to find out how much your pupils know about your subject. It is folly for you to expect to teach them anything when you don't even know where to begin with them. Many a failure has had its beginning in just such a hiatus. It is better for you to expect too little on their part than to expect too much. Exercise both mercy and sympathy, and the joy of teaching will remain with you all of your days.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. Trace the history and development of your own elementary school.
2. What problems of adjustment did you experience in going from the elementary school to the high school?
3. If you went to a junior high school, how many of the charges brought out in this chapter against the junior high school applied in your case?
4. What were your most serious deficiencies, if any, that you brought with you from the elementary to the high school? How did the high school take care of them?
5. What are the qualifications in your state for teaching in the junior high school?

6. How much do you expect a pupil who comes from the elementary school to know about your special subject field?

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The Educational Ladder: Early School Leavers

NO MATTER how immediate or how remote it is, there is in everyone's life a goal of some kind. One of the stock questions that visitors like to put to youngsters is, "Well, sonny. What do you want to be when you grow up?" The answers are: policeman, fireman, farmer, truck driver, cowboy, hunter, soldier, anything whose nature partakes of stirring activity. The reason? These individuals are those whose work comes within the experience periphery of the youngster. They can be seen in real life, in the movies, on television, and in the comics. They are busy people, always doing things. And so it is with youngsters.

Then, as they grow up, why is it that they don't cause an oversupply of policemen, firemen, cowboys, etc.? What happens to these earlier expressions of occupational choices? As children advance in life and in school they learn of other possibilities, with the result that the longer they stay in school, the more they depart from their original choices and set up other goals. There is a fair degree of correlation between the amount of schooling which an individual experiences and his socioeconomic status in life. Hollingshead, in his *Elmtown's Youth*,¹ shows how social or class status is related to formal educational experience. Class I members finish high school and most of them attend some college or university, even if fewer than half of them graduate. The most highly educated adults are found in Class II.

¹ A. B. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1949, pp. 88, 93, 94, 99, 100, 106, 107, 117.

Four out of five parents have completed high school and one-half have attended a college or university from one to four years. . . . The college-educated fathers are concentrated in the large professions; a few are in business. . . . Both college and noncollege fathers and mothers emphasize the need for a college education to their children. . . . The boys are headed for business or a profession. The girls are steered toward a desirable marriage after an education has been secured; for they must be trained for the kind of life that is expected of them. . . . Approximately one-half of the fathers (in Class III) have no formal schooling beyond the eighth grade, but 97 per cent of the mothers have at least one or more years of high school. (These figures indicate indirectly that a girl with training beyond the high school was faced with the dilemma, when she was ready to marry, of marrying a man with considerably less education than she possessed, or of not marrying.) . . . Formal educational experience (for Class IV) is limited almost exclusively to the public elementary and high schools. One-third of the fathers and a fifth of the mothers have not graduated from the eighth grade; one-sixth of the fathers and one-fourth of the mothers have attended high school, but only slightly more than one father out of twenty and one mother out of eleven have graduated from high school. The present generation is receiving more education than its parents did, but the average is not more than two years of high school. . . . Formal educational experience (in Class V) is limited in large part to the elementary school. Two parents out of three (67 per cent) quit school before the eighth grade was reached; the third completed it. Seven fathers and six mothers out of 230 have completed a year or more of high school; only one father and four mothers have graduated. None has attended any type of school after leaving the public school system.

Changes in School Population

We have already dealt with the type of pupil who attended the secondary schools of the first two centuries of our history. They came from upper class and upper-middle class homes and were comparatively few. During the past century an educational revolution has taken place in this country. From 1890-1940 enrollments in the secondary school increased by 1888 percent.

These enormous increases in the number of youth served by the secondary schools in the United States will be more fully appreciated when they are compared to the basic population data for youth 14-17 years of age which constitute the major high-school-age groups. It will be seen

that during the past 60 years the number of youth in this age bracket has increased from five and one-third million to a high of nine and two-thirds million, or an increase of about 82 percent. For 1950, this percentage of increase has dropped to 55.1. Comparisons between these modest increases and the enormous growth in the high school enrollments clearly point to the changes occurring as concerns the number and types of secondary school youth to be served by the schools. Simple percentage ratios derived when high school enrollment figures are divided into those for the pertinent population group show that in 1890 about 7 percent of the eligible youth were in high school:

in 1900 the figure stood at 11,

in 1910 at 15,

in 1920 at 32,

in 1930 at 51,

in 1940 at 73; estimates suggest that at the present time (1950)* about 75 percent of all youth in these age brackets are attending high school. To be sure, somewhat larger ratios of youth enter the high school grades and a much smaller number graduate. The percentage of youth entering high school has increased

from about 35 in 1918 . . .

to about 80 in 1948. The percentages of those retained through to graduation have increased from about 13 to about 45 during this period. Obviously, the proportion of those entering high school during the thirty years has doubled while the proportion of those graduating has been tripled. . . .

Despite the great increases which have occurred in the total high school student body and in the proportion of eligibles attending high school, the statistics cited show that as a Nation, we still fall far short of the goal we envision in the American dream of high school for all. One in 5 of our youth still does not enter high school and only 2 in 5 remain to graduate.

But what have all these enormous increases in proportions of youth attending high school meant in terms of the types of youth which the high school must serve and the changes which must be made to serve them well? Obviously, it has meant very rapid enlargements of all the physical aspects of this part of the school system—buildings, libraries, teaching equipment, and financing; it has also meant more teachers and different types of teachers. Much more important, it has meant basic changes in the social composition of the youth coming to these schools. Boys and girls attending the high schools today are rapidly approaching a cross section

* Table 5, chap. 1 of the 1949-1950 *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States* gives 81% for 1950.

of society itself, made up of the rich and the poor, the bright and the dull, those coming from the elementary grades with high scholastic records and those with low records, those destined for college and those going immediately into industry, those reared in the finest homes and those from the slums and across the tracks. These basic changes in social composition have effected far-reaching changes in our high schools and have created many new situations to which these schools have not fully responded.³

Changes in Social and Economic Life

The revolutionary increases in the enrollments in the secondary schools are the product of many forces acting and interacting within our social system and the economy that it has created. The popularization of high school education is in one way or another related to the rapid changes that have come in our social and economic life. To highlight only a few of these changes, it has been stated that since 1910 we have increased our supply of machine power 4½ times. We have doubled the output per hour of each producer and we have cut 18 hours from the average work week. It has been estimated that 100 years ago machines did only 6 percent of man's work. Today, they do 85 percent of it and they do it better, cheaper, and faster, and with much less tax upon our physical energies.

Illustrating this change by examination of one phase of this development, we may look briefly at the shift from the horse and buggy to the automobile as a means of conveyance and transportation. In 1910 there were approximately 20 million horses and virtually no automobiles. In 1922 the number of horses was approximately the same but their work was supplemented by some 9½ million automobiles and trucks. By 1931 horses and horse-drawn vehicles had begun to decline but still numbered approximately 15 million. The number of automobiles and trucks had, however, risen to nearly 26 million. By 1941 the horse and buggy, the symbol of conveyance and transportation, had dwindled to about 10 million and motor vehicles had increased to 30½ million. By 1950 the former has become all but obsolete and the latter is multiplying by leaps and bounds.

On the farms the changes have been similar. . . . Estimates show that under the hand methods of farm production dominating the scene at the beginning of the nineteenth century, one man-hour of labor produced an average of less than 25 pounds of wheat. By 1896, with the reaper and

³ Report of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth to the National Conference, Chicago, October 16-18, 1950, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, pp. 3 and 5.

other farm machinery in their early stages of development, this production had risen to about 130 pounds of wheat per man-hour.⁴ By 1942 the modern combine, implemented by use of tractors and similar power machinery, had increased this production to more than 300 pounds per man-hour.

With these far-reaching changes taking place in all departments of our social and economic life, it is no wonder that the demands for learning, for technological know-how, and for changes in our high schools took on the aspects of a campaign. Indeed, high school education of any type became something of a fetish in all walks of American life. This level of education was more and more recognized as an important qualification for securing "sure-fire" means of lifting youth from the heavy labor marking the lives of their parents to a "white collar" job. To be sure, the relationship between job effectiveness and high school education has never been too well established; nevertheless, the great social and economic changes which have taken place in the last half century have had an enormous impact on the growth of our high schools and the number of pupils attending them. They have significantly influenced the upward revision of the compulsory school attendance laws; they have produced demands for more and better vocational and technical education and they are the chief motivating force behind the continuous need for re-examining the educational structures and programs of our high schools with a view to improving and functionalizing their services.⁵

So, in today's secondary school, we find an entirely new type of pupil personnel as contrasted with the group that went to school a century ago. These boys and girls come from all walks of life. The compulsory age law is responsible for the presence of many of them. Social and economic prestige is accountable for many more. They find that employing officials do pay attention to the amount of secondary schooling possessed by the job applicant. In fact, they cannot secure some jobs unless they present the evidence that they are high school graduates. But the startling datum in the whole picture is that of the survival rate. The most reliable information on this situation comes from the United States Office of Education.⁶ Enrollment data are presented for the 12-year period 1938-1939 through

⁴ Louis M. Hacker, Rudolf Modley, and George R. Taylor, *The United States: A Graphic History*, Modern Age Press, New York, 1937.

⁵ *Report of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth*, pp.

TABLE 21. Enrollment Data and Certain Percentages in Public Secondary Schools, by Grade, from 1938-1939 to 1949-1950*

Year	Total Enrollment for Each Year	Total High School Enrollment for Each Year	Grade Level	Enrollment in This Grade
1938-1939	25,704,325	6,414,189	First	3,167,803
1939-1940	25,433,542	6,601,444	Second	2,333,706
1940-1941	25,296,138	6,713,913	Third	2,263,315
1941-1942	24,562,473	6,387,805	Fourth	2,196,732
1942-1943	24,155,146	6,122,066	Fifth	2,101,723
1943-1944	23,266,616	5,553,520	Sixth	1,997,806
1944-1945	23,225,784	5,560,190	Seventh	1,897,743
1945-1946	23,299,941	5,662,197	Eighth	1,653,683
1946-1947	23,659,158	5,837,677	Ninth	1,761,020
1947-1948	23,944,532	5,653,305	Tenth	1,502,743
1948-1949	24,476,658	5,658,404	Eleventh	1,267,483
1949-1950	25,111,427	5,706,734	Twelfth	1,122,872

Year	Percent of Total Enrollment for the Same Year	Percent of First Grade Enrollment for 1938-1939	Percent of Total High School Enrollment for That Year	Percent of Ninth Grade Enrollment for 1946-1947
1938-1939	12.3	100		
1939-1940	9.2	73		
1940-1941	8.9	71		
1941-1942	8.9	69		
1942-1943	8.7	66		
1943-1944	8.6	62		
1944-1945	8.2	59		
1945-1946	7.1	52		
1946-1947	7.5	55	30	100
1947-1948	6.3	47	26	85
1948-1949	5.2	40	22	72
1949-1950	4.5	38	20	64

* "Statistical Summary of Education," Adapted from the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States—1948-50*, U.S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, 1953, Chap. 1, p. 18.

1949-1950, giving the total enrollment for each year and the number enrolled on each grade level. We shall tabulate some of the figures and try to interpret them.

Enrollment Data

The following information has been supplied in Table 21: the total enrollment for both elementary and secondary schools for each of the 12 years; the total high school enrollment for the same years; the enrollment for successive grades, beginning with the first in 1938-1939 and ending with the twelfth grade in 1949-1950; the percentage that the enrollment in each grade was of the total enrollment for that year; the percentage that the enrollment of each successive grade was of the enrollment in the first grade in 1938-1939; the percentage that the enrollment in each high school grade was of the total high school enrollment for that year; and the percentage that the enrollment in each high school grade was of the enrollment in the ninth grade in 1946-1947.

By an examination of the table, we find that the peak high school enrollment was in 1940-1941. We know that two causes explained the decrease from 1941 to 1944. One was the decline in the birth rate up to that time. The other was the war, which had drained the high schools of boys and girls to work in war industries. Beginning with 1944-1945, we find a gradual increase in high school enrollments.

As we progress from one grade level to the next, we find that the percentages of the total enrollments for each year decreased, during the 12-year period, by about two-thirds (12.3-4.5); that the twelfth grade enrollment for 1949-1950 was 38 percent of the first grade enrollment in 1938-1939; that there was a decrease of one-third in the percentages of total high school enrollments for each of the 4 years (30-20); and that the senior class of 1949-1950 was 64 per cent of its entering freshman class of 1946-1947.

The above data may seem like a mere conglomeration of figures to you, but, unless you see them in relation to the total picture, you will fail to grasp the significance that they bear to you as a prospective teacher. In introducing this discussion we used the word "startling." If we have set as our aim the education of our youth for participation in democratic living, isn't it disturbing to find that almost half

of those who began school in 1938-1939 never entered high school and that, of those who do enter high school, only slightly over 60 percent get as far as the senior year?

If we consider the secondary school as beginning with grade 7, then these are the results: 59 percent of those in the first grade in 1938-1939 entered the seventh grade in 1944-1945; 64 percent of these entered the twelfth grade in 1949-1950. If we base our percentages for the 6-year period from 1944-1945 to 1949-1950 on the seventh grade enrollment in 1944-1945, we arrive at the following survival percentages for each of the six years: 100, 82, 93, 79, 67, 59. Approximately 60 percent of those enrolled in the seventh grade entered the twelfth grade, and 67 percent entered the eleventh grade. And yet these figures are an improvement over those for 4 years earlier, when the corresponding survival percentages for the 6 years 1940-1941 to 1945-1946, were 100, 80, 90, 72, 59, and 47.

So, whichever way we look at it, we still cannot rid ourselves of the feeling that we are falling down somewhere along the line. Half of the citizens of tomorrow are being given a blank check without being informed as to the balance of their account in the bank of their future independence and security. Because a democracy such as ours is based upon the premise that its continued success is tied up with a literate, intelligent citizenry, there are many who are seriously troubled over our apparent failure to keep our boys and girls in school long enough during adolescence to induct them into their citizenship responsibilities.

Why Pupils Drop Out of School

Several important studies and investigations have been made in an effort to explain why so many drop out of school.⁷ Dodds treats of

⁷ B. L. Dodds, "That All May Learn," *The Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, D.C., November, 1939; Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story*, American Council on Education, Washington, 1940, American Association of School Administrators, *Youth Education Today*, Sixteenth Yearbook, Washington, D.C., 1938; Council of State Governments, *The Forty-Eight State School Systems*, Chicago, 1949; A. B. Hollingshead, *op. cit.*; Harold J. Dillon, *Early School Leavers*, National Child Labor Committee, New York, 1949, Florence Taylor, *Why Stay in School?* Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1949, Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, *Principal Findings of the 1947-48 Basic Studies*, State Department of Instruction, Springfield, Ill., 1949.

the educationally neglected child whom he defines as "that student to whom the conventional curriculum is maladjusted."⁸ He then proceeds to show how the needs of this type of student might be met. The National Child Labor Committee report deals with the study of 1300 school leavers in five communities as to their background, their reasons for leaving school, and their relation to the job. Primary and secondary reasons for leaving school were given by 957 who were interviewed. The tabulation is presented in Table 22.

TABLE 22. Frequency of Reasons Given for Leaving*

Reasons	Frequency of Occurrence
Preferred work to school	551
Were not interested in school work	435
Needed money to buy clothes and help at home	427
Wanted spending money	369
Were failing and didn't want to repeat grade	219
Could not learn in school and were discouraged	210
Disliked a certain subject	208
Disliked a certain teacher	178
Friends had left school	156
Could learn more out of school than in school	147
Ill health	132
Parents wanted youth to leave school	84

* Harold J. Dillon, *Early School Leavers*, National Child Labor Committee, New York, 1949, p. 54.

Mrs. Taylor's list of reasons is given under two headings: personal troubles and school problems.

Personal troubles:

- Money costs for going to school
- Family needs the money the teen-ager can earn
- Parent trouble
- Disinterested parents

School problems:

- Trouble at home or in school
- Ill health
- High school work harder than in grade school

⁸ B. L. Dodds, "That All May Learn," *The Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, D.C., November, 1939, p. 18.

Trouble reading the textbooks

Wrong choice of courses

Failure to see what high school will do for them

Problem of new environment, transfer from one school to a new one

Poor preparation in the sending school⁹

The Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program¹⁰ conducted a holding power study in 22 four-year schools. "For every ten who received their diplomas, slightly fewer than three pupils dropped out in half of the twenty-two schools." Holding power had nothing to do with the size of the school.¹¹ Over half were boys. "Approximately four out of every five withdrawing pupils would presumably

⁹ Florence Taylor, *Why Stay in School?* Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1949, pp. 5-10.

¹⁰ The Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, *Principal Findings of the 1947-48 Basic Studies*, State Department of Public Instruction, Springfield, Ill., 1949, p. 13.

¹¹ This statement receives support from the findings in Walter H. Gaumnitz and Ellsworth Tompkin, *Holding Power and Size of High Schools*, Circular 322, Office of Education, Washington D.C., 1950, p. 19.

1. From whatever angle this problem is studied the high schools fall far short of their announced goal of serving all youth.

2. Well over half of all youth either do not enter high school or drop out before graduation.

3. Two of every five boys and girls drop out *after* entering high school.

4. The secondary schools of the states recording the highest holding power, as defined in this study, appear to be two or three times as successful in retaining youth in school to the grade level as those showing the lowest indices.

5. State school systems which maintain separate high schools for minority groups almost invariably show low holding power.

6. The indices of most of the States show few significant holding power differences between the reorganized and the traditionally organized high schools; those recording significant differences are more often in favor of schools organized as junior-senior high schools.

7. With careful attention to the factors involved, the over-all holding power of the high schools can be appraised quite as well by comparing the twelfth grade enrollment to that in the ninth grade of the same year as by comparing the enrollment of the twelfth to the enrollments in grade 5 or 9 of the appropriate earlier year.

8. No clear, consistent evidence was found to demonstrate the superiority in holding power of the larger high schools over the smaller ones. In many states the smaller high schools seem to retain youth better than the middle-sized schools; in a few states the smallest schools excel even the largest schools in holding power.

have been near the bottom of their class had they persisted in schools."

Apparently the unfortunate consequences noted in the New York Regents Inquiry are also operative in Illinois. In the New York study it was found that, "On the average, the less competent a pupil has shown himself to be in meeting school tasks, the more quickly he is released to face adult problems. Those who will be least able to acquire socially useful habits, information, and points of view without formal instruction are those to whom the school has given the least attention."¹²

It is overwhelmingly the children from the lower income families who withdraw from high school. Scarcely more than 50 percent of the adult population is engaged in occupations here subsumed under the category of labor, yet 72 percent of the dropouts in the schools studied come from families of such workers. Apparently the statement by Howard M. Bell that "The strongest single factor in determining how far a youth goes in his school is the occupation of his father"¹³ holds for Illinois. What this situation in secondary education means in long-time welfare terms has also been realistically stated by Bell. His observations run thus: (1) the grade attained in school by an individual determines the type of job he secures, (2) the type of job he secures determines the income he receives, (3) the amount of income he receives determines the grade in school to be attained by his children, which (4) in turn, indicates the types of jobs they will get, the amount of income they will receive, the length of time their children will remain in school, and so on, and so on.¹⁴

The probable reasons back of the withdrawal of boys and girls from school were listed as: (1) boys have more difficulty in adjusting to school work; (2) anxiety over military service on the part of boys; (3) more job opportunities for teen-age boys than for girls; (4) the unpleasant experience of being branded in school as incompetent; (5) parental attitudes toward stay in school; (6) failure to see any relationship between what is taught in school and anything

¹² R. E. Eckert and T. O. Marshall, *When Youth Leave School*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938, pp. 67-68.

¹³ Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story*, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1938, p. 63.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 93.

they do; (7) on the lower economic levels the expectation of not staying in school; (8) failure or inability of teachers, who themselves come largely from the middle class, to understand these youth; (9) exclusion of the group from participation in extracurricular activities because of the social distinctions involved, failure to have the money it takes in order to participate, and the necessity of engaging in part-time jobs; (10) availability of teen-age jobs with their financial rewards; (11) early marriage on the part of girls.

These boys and girls are joined by many others who have not left school but who, for all the good they are getting out of it, might just as well be out of school. They come dutifully to school every day, they attend classes, they go through the motions of doing their lessons, but their hearts are not in any part of it. Like Penrod,¹⁵ they sit in their classes with their minds far off in fields that will realize the ego within them. In other words, they are doing little more than marking time in the halls of learning. There just is no goal, no incentive to push them on to so-called academic achievement. And they are the boys and girls with whom you will be called upon to deal as student teachers or as full-time teachers. What can you do about it?

The Prosser Resolution

An attempt to find an answer was made in June, 1945, at the annual convention in New York of the American Vocational Association, when Charles A. Prosser introduced his now famous resolution:¹⁶

Throughout this conference, repeated references have been made to "neglected groups in vocational education." In closing, I am taking the liberty—in submitting the following Resolution—to point out the largest of these neglected groups of young people; and to propose that another conference like this one be held at an early date to consider what should be done for them.

It is the belief of this conference that, with the aid of this report in final form, the vocational school of a community will be able better to prepare 20 percent of its youth of secondary school age for entrance upon desirable skilled occupations; and that the high school will continue to prepare 20

¹⁵ Booth Tarkington, *Penrod*, Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc., New York, 1914.

¹⁶ *Report of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth*, p. 40.

percent of its students for entrance to college. We do not believe that the remaining 80 percent of our youth of secondary school age will receive the life adjustment training they need and to which they are entitled as American citizens—unless and until the administrators of public education with the assistance of the vocational education leaders formulate a comparable program for this group.

We, therefore, request the U.S. Commissioner of Education and the Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education to call at some early date a conference or a series of conferences between an equal number of representatives of general and of vocational education—to consider this problem and to take such initial steps as may be found advisable for its solution.

Regional conferences were held, as suggested by Prosser, in 1946, and a national conference in Chicago in 1947. This conference laid the groundwork for a Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, whose members were appointed by John W. Studebaker, the Commissioner of Education. The Commission was given a 3-year existence, at the end of which time a second national conference was held in Chicago in October, 1950, to receive the Commission's report and to extend its life for another 3-year period.

The remarkable thing about this particular movement is that it has been entirely voluntary in character. The Office of Education has no authority to impose a program of education upon the nation's schools. What it has done, through the agency of the Commission, has been to spread the gospel, so to speak, via the state departments of education in the forty-eight states. The reason is that these departments are, or should be, the educational leaders in their respective states. Any large-scale efforts to improve the curricular offerings in any state should be carried on under the direction of its chief state school officer. That is what has been done in about a third of the states which have taken steps to tackle the problem. There have also been individual school systems which have proceeded to do something on their own initiative.

The Life Adjustment Education program is really the outgrowth of two other important reports, *Education for All American Youth*¹⁷

¹⁷ *Educational Policies Commission, Education for All American Youth, National Education Association, Washington, D C., 1944. Revised as A Further Look in 1952.*

and *Planning for American Youth*.¹⁸ The latter was a diagrammatic and pictorial summary of the former. *Education for All American Youth* presented the ideal picture of what the American secondary school might be in a representative community called Farmville, in American City, and in the state of Columbia. The assumption, as implied in the title, was that all American youth would be in a secondary school, if that secondary school were organized and administered so as to meet the needs of all its youth. The companion volume brought into graphic form all that the *Planning* volume had proposed, with the addition of a proposed program for grades 7-9. Its most practical contribution was the presentation of a curriculum for the pupils in American City. It contained these major areas: personal interests, grades 7, 8, 9; individual interests, grades 10-14; vocational preparation, grades 10-14; common learnings, grades 7-14; and health and physical fitness, grades 7-14.

Both reports were excellent, especially the second, but that is about all that they were—reports. The Principals' Association sponsored discussion groups, out of which came some action in individual schools. But there was no machinery to provide an impetus for concerted action of some kind. It was not until the Life Adjustment Education Program for Youth came along that an instrument was created that could actually implement the reports of the Educational Policies Commission and of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Their reports, coming as the climax to general feelings of dissatisfaction with what we were or were not accomplishing in our secondary schools, may have been the immediate impetus to the Prosser Resolution.

What the Schools Have Been Doing

At any rate, this Resolution did set matters in motion. The name of the movement was taken from Prosser's own wording. But a much broader interpretation has been given to the ideas than was originally intended. Prosser said that 60 percent of those in secondary schools were educationally neglected. They were neglected as compared with those engaged in vocational preparation and in preparation for college. These two groups did have more or less definite

¹⁸ National Association of Secondary School Principals, *Planning for American Youth*, Washington, D.C., 1944, revised 1951.

goals, so that the courses they studied in school did have some meaning for them. The rest were neither fish nor fowl. The college preparatory curriculum was too remotely related to the lives they were living; there just were no connections, so far as they could see, between the English, science, mathematics, and foreign languages required in this curriculum and what they did from day to day. On the other hand, they didn't plan to become skilled in any particular trade, because the jobs that were open to them did not demand the kind of training that the school could offer. What kinds of jobs were these? Messenger boys, delivery boys, truck drivers, soda fountain jerkers, elevator operators, cafeteria counter help, dime store clerks, package wrappers, bellhops, filling station attendants, waiters, assembly line operators, telephone operators, etc.

What the Schools Need to Do

In order to become better citizens, what do these folks need to do better what they are going to do anyway? They need help to make better adjustments to problems as: working at a job which will bring in enough income to support a home; getting along with fellow workers; understanding something about employer-employee relationships; learning something about labor unions; marrying, having a home, and bringing up a family; owning and operating a car sanely and safely; being an intelligent reader of newspapers and magazines; being a better critic of comics, movie, radio, and television programs; getting along with neighbors, coöperating in community welfare activities; spending money wisely and thriftily; figuring various kinds of taxes; and voting in local, state, and national elections.

And what have our schools been doing? They have taught the pupil to distinguish between restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses, to figure π , to distinguish ablative of manner from ablative of means, to learn the classification of hymenoptera, to memorize the bones in the ear, to mount leaves in a scrapbook, to learn the names of the Presidents in chronological order, to translate French sentences into atrocious English, to paint water-color scenes, and to prepare just part of a recipe, instead of teaching him to express his thoughts clearly, even if not in sufficiently grammatical form to suit the teacher, to figure sales taxes in the dime store, to distinguish between

the good and bad butterflies in the garden, to recognize signs of deafness, to identify trees in winter, to learn what makes a good President, to compare and contrast French customs with ours, to make artistic place cards, and to devise and prepare a balanced meal.

Fundamentally, there is nothing brand new about the Life Adjustment Education program. The schools have always attempted to adjust their programs to the needs of the youth attending them, but, because of the huge increase in the school population within the past 35 years, the school has not had time to catch up. National groups have discussed the problem and have issued some wonderful reports. Individual and sporadic attempts have been made to alleviate the situation, but the Life Adjustment program is the first all-out and concerted effort on a national scale to do something to get at the grass roots of the problem.

Your attention must be called to an interpretation of the Prosser Resolution that has considerably broadened its coverage. Because of Prosser's use of the 20, 60, and 20 percentages, there were some educators, and others, who thought that Prosser meant to divide secondary school youth into three separate and distinct groups. That was not his intention. What he was doing was to bring forcibly to our attention that there existed a large group of pupils whose needs could not be met either by specific vocational or by college preparatory training. So, after serious deliberations,

the Commission finally agreed upon a statement that life adjustment education is for all, [this is the important fact for you to remember], even though there is special concern for the so-called 60 percent. . . . Life adjustment education is designed to equip all American youth to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and profit to society as home members, workers and citizens. It is concerned especially with a sizeable proportion of youth of high school age (both in school and out) whose objectives are less well served by our schools than the objectives of preparation for either a skilled occupation or higher education.¹⁹

In other words, what is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander. At the same time that we consider the needs of the so-called neglected group, we must not forget that there are tremendously vital needs that are common to all.

¹⁹ *Report of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth*, pp. 47-48.

Implementing Life Adjustment Education

State departments of education are establishing special committees or making use of existing machinery to revise curricular offerings on both state and local levels. These committees are urging schools to carry on holding-power studies similar to those in Illinois, so that they may have a foundation upon which to build. Consultant services are being provided for local staffs. Workshops and conferences are devoted to developing techniques and skills for studying the pupil population and school community. Noneducators are being brought into the study and planning by the appointment of advisory lay committees.

Individual schools are analyzing their problems, whether or not the state department of education is behind them. The first thing these schools do is to conduct fact finding studies on: follow-up; holding power; facts about pupils; personal expenses of pupils; participation in extraclass activities; subjects and failures; and community changes. Committees of educators and laymen have been authorized by the board of education to study educational offerings, the school plant, and the community itself. Courses in home and family living are offered for both boys and girls in separate or mixed classes. Classes in social studies are including units in social problems and individual problems in a social setting. In the junior high school, English and social studies are being combined into one block of time and organized along more functional lines.

Pupils learn to make speeches, carry on discussions, and preside at formal meetings in many classes and school functions. Problems of community health are taught in science and health classes. Safety education is a part of the industrial arts program or a separate course in driver education. Many problems of public finance and consumer education are studied in classes of mathematics and science. In these classes, also, pupils learn to interpret group experiences in solving many types of problems. Committee work takes place in all classes. Continuously groups of pupils are presented with alternations so that they learn to make decisions. The general atmosphere of the school is democratic; class procedures are consistent with school policies.²⁰

The program is planned to include all pupils. . . . The emphasis of the program is on acquiring civic competence. . . . The class operates as a

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 123.

social unit which includes participation of all its members. . . . Each pupil is helped to relate his own aspirations and activities to the life and work of the school. . . . Each pupil is helped to understand his community. . . . The pupil is encouraged to participate in the life of the community. . . . Courses of study are designed to meet the needs of the pupil in understanding the contemporary world. . . . The ultimate goal for the program of citizenship is to help every pupil function as an active citizen in all the communities in which he lives, from his local community to the United Nations. . . . The human relations of the pupil are the foremost concern of the school. . . . Evaluations are made in terms of growth and understanding relationships and changes in behavior.²¹

The point to be emphasized is that the life adjustment education program does *not* aim to introduce new subjects as much as it strives to take those very subjects that are found in our schools and revamp them so as to make them meaningful for the future citizen, his duties, and his responsibilities.

Because tradition has caused education to become such a book-learning, intellectualized procedure, the prestige element in school has been attached to the reading, memorizing, and reciting type of activity. The curriculum and courses of study were built upon the conviction that any education worthy of the name had to be obtained from books. This belief was an integral part of faith in the doctrine of formal discipline²² and of the attitude that only the intellectually capable could profit from the offerings of the grammar school, the academy as a preparatory school, and the high school of the '90's. When compulsory education laws and the improved economic status of the home brought increasing numbers into our secondary schools, book education continued to be the dominant method of instruction. In this chapter we have learned that early school leavers have their greatest trouble with the subjects they have to take. To repeat what has already been said several times, they see no connection between the classroom lessons and the normal pursuits of their everyday lives.

To narrow the gap that seems to exist between classroom and living, or reading and doing, educators have coined a new phrase, work experience, as a slogan to which to tie a more realistic type of curriculum content and teaching methods. It implies more than the

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 123-127. Further discussions and illustrations of vitalizing the curriculum will be found in later chapters on objectives.

²² See pp. 274, 275.

Dewey "learning by doing" philosophy. Work experience has two contributions to make. The first is the emphasis that it restores to the place that the hand occupies in the learning process. The kinesthetic experiences that are provided through manual manipulation are as valuable as those gained from reading. The evidence of the existence of this phase of work experience is found in the problem-project type of activity found in shop, laboratory, and workroom of any description.

The other contribution is that which relates to the economic aspect of life. For a parallel we have to return almost to the horse and buggy days, where each member of the family simply had to work. There were chores that father, mother, sister, and brother had to do. Each one learned not only how to work but what it meant to work. This situation is still true to a great extent on the farm. But in our cities, the opportunities for work experiences for teen-agers have been so reduced that they are almost absent. Boys can still get odd jobs such as delivering papers, mowing lawns, cleaning snow off sidewalks, and part-time work in stores, but girls have been almost relieved of their accustomed chores around the house. It is true that baby-sitting has recently furnished work opportunities for girls, but most of them have had practically no preparation for such a job.

The school, as society's agent, is being called upon to provide work experiences that will enable boys and girls to make better adjustments. The best description of the significance of this position is given in the following quotations:²³

Young people need to learn to work. Labor is the lot of man, and it has not been recognized as it should have been in arranging institutional education.

The ability to work steadily for 8 hours is not a natural possession; it has to be acquired.

By the time a young person reaches adolescence he needs to have opportunities for work if he is to make the transition into adulthood rapidly and efficiently.

The payment of wages to young people for the labor which they perform contributes to economic adjustment.

Wages are a means additional to schooling of inducting young people into adulthood.

²³ Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, *Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth*, Washington, D.C., 1948, pp. 98-99.

With proper social motives a vocation may be made the most compelling purpose of education which we can set before a pupil.

A democracy will not separate its work and culture.

All children should be given several types of work experience for its exploratory value so that all may have some understanding of the work of the world.

So we find that life adjustment education involves the provision through the home, through private employment, through means initiated by youth themselves, through the laboratories and shops in the schools, and through local, state, or federal service agencies the opportunities:

To learn to work through getting a job, holding a job, working, earning, learning, and growing on the job.

To learn to get along with people through taking direction, meeting responsibilities, developing work habits.

To gain knowledge of problems of labor and management, problems of business safety, and problems relating to industry, business, and agriculture.²⁴

The best and most succinct presentation of types of secondary school work programs is that given by Ivins.²⁵

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|---|--|
| 1. Cooperative work programs partially supported by federal funds, under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes, George-Deen, and supplementary federal acts aiding secondary vocational education. | 1. Cooperative Diversified Occupations |
| | 2. Trades and Industries Instruction |
| | 3. Vocational Home Economics |
| | 4. Vocational Agriculture |
| | 5. Distributive Education |
| | 6. Cooperative Distributive Education |
| 2. Cooperative work programs supported solely by local funds. | 1. Cooperative Diversified Occupations |
| | 2. Cooperative Distributive Education |
| | 3. Cooperative Office Practice |
| | 4. General Cooperative Work Program |

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 97.

²⁵ Wilson H. Ivins, in Harl R. Douglass (edited by), *Education for Life Adjustment*, 1950, The Ronald Press Company, p. 359.

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| 3. Work programs of the old N.Y.A. type which rely upon work opportunities in the school, chiefly for providing experience to individual students. | 1. The In-School Work Program |
| 4. School programs which emphasize group and individual work activities in normal vacation periods. | 1. The General High School Camp Program
2. The Crop-Cultivation, Crop-Harvesting, or Seasonal-Work Camp Program |
| 5. School work programs which emphasize the group and unpaid aspects of work activities originating in community needs and desires. | 1. The Community School Program |

Your Relationship to the Life Adjustment Education Program

Suggestions will be offered concerning some possible contributions that you, as prospective teachers, may make, especially in connection with teaching for the objective of economic efficiency.²⁶ A practical, down-to-earth series of booklets put out by Science Research Associates²⁷ may be of great assistance in providing you with some common-sense guides. The following topics are dealt with in the separate booklets:

Why Stay in School?
What Good is High School?
Study Your Way Through School
Streamline Your Reading
Discovering Your Real Interests
You and Your Mental Abilities
Should You Go to College?
Understanding Yourself
Growing Up Socially
How to Live with Parents
Getting Along With Others
Dating Days

²⁶ See chapter 15.

²⁷ *Life Adjustment Booklets*, Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago.

Understanding Sex
Looking Ahead to Marriage
Choosing Your Career
What Employers Want
How to Get a Job
Getting Job Experience
Your Personality and Your Job
Money and You
How to be a Better Speaker
You and Your Health
Enjoying Leisure Time

Early School Leavers and Educational Opportunities

No matter what the reasons may have been that have caused a boy or girl to leave high school before graduation, there may come a time when the individual wishes that he had graduated or that he had taken some other courses. He may also find that advancement in his job or the possibility of getting another job hinges upon his high school diploma. The life histories of successful men are replete with accounts of how they improved each shining hour by home study or by furthering their education by other means. The doors to knowledge are always open to those who wish to enter. Home study has been mentioned. Its main drawback is that it is so easy to put off doing what one ought to do. Most of us need an external incentive to urge us on. If we pay for something and if we commit ourselves to a definite schedule, we are more likely to continue with whatever we have begun. Opportunities of this kind are many. The most common is the taking of courses by correspondence. There are reputable independent schools of this type and many universities that offer courses on both secondary and collegiate levels. The range of courses is extremely wide. High schools in the larger cities hold what are called night schools, attendance at which is free. The courses offered are those for which there is a demand. There are business colleges and trade schools that offer a specialized type of education. Some of these are of such a purely commercialized character that great care needs to be exercised in selecting one to attend. There are a few short-term engineering schools in the country that serve a real purpose in that they admit those who have not gradu-

ated from high school and give them enough mathematics, science, and engineering to advance them in this field. Extension courses, sponsored by a reputable university, are offered during the day, late afternoons, and evenings, from noncredit general lecture courses all the way to courses for credit leading to graduate degrees. Anyone who has the mind and the will need never complain that there are no chances in this world for him to get ahead.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. What social levels are recognized in your home community? What evidences of these levels are found in your high school?
2. What is the social composition of your home community? What relation is there between this composition and attendance at high school?
3. What are the main occupations in your home community? From which occupational groups do most of the high school students come?
4. Not all of those who entered high school with you graduated when you did. As best you can, tabulate the reasons for their dropping out.
5. In what ways is your high school meeting and failing to meet the provisions of life adjustment education?
6. Find out from your state department of education what it is doing to assist with the program for life adjustment education.

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The Educational Ladder: College and University

Why Go to College?

ONCE upon a time, when the relationship between the college and the secondary school was so close that the one became the continuation of the other, it was essential, if the boy intended to become a clergyman, that he go to college. Of course, there were only a few who availed themselves of this opportunity. But this type of purposiveness has always existed among those who had to prepare themselves for a certain profession. What has happened in our colleges and universities is that they are filled with countless young men and women who are not motivated by such definite purposes. In fact, half of them do not go beyond the sophomore year. Now it costs time and money to go to college. There must be some reasons, good or bad, to cause so many hopeful high school seniors to leave home and embark upon a new educational venture. Let us see if we can present a picture that will portray some kind of answer to the question, "Why go to college?"

1. To prepare for a profession is the purpose that has been the most consistent one of all. Entrance into certain professions can be gained only by the pursuit of a certain amount of advanced, formal education. It is no longer possible to become a doctor, lawyer, dentist, clergyman, teacher, engineer, or research worker without a baccalaureate degree. It has also become requisite that an individual have this degree to enter upon many business positions. Of two applicants, other things being equal, the man with the degree will get the job. So, if you wish to advance in the professional and business world, you must go to college.

2. The first aim is a practical, utilitarian one, but, associated with it, is one that is supposed to be the idealistic one. There are people who go to college because they are consumed with a desire to learn more. They are fascinated by the immense world of knowledge. They are the studious, scholarly individuals, who are never satisfied with their present states of knowledge. They actually hunger and thirst for the intellectual life. They are the source of our future workers in the field of research. They actually are more interested in what they can find out than in the monetary compensation they receive for their work. They form the bulk of those who continue into the graduate school.

3. The first two aims are those that college catalogs would like to play up. They are the motives for which institutions of higher education presumably exist. They are concerned with those of serious intent and purpose. Those who have these aims in mind take 4 years of work and then are graduated. But there are many who don't last that long. Their reasons for going to college may partake *in parvo* of the two aims already listed, but there usually are more mundane excuses for their climbing the ladder of higher education. Going to college has become a fad. It is the thing to do. This aim is keeping up with the Joneses. "My neighbor, or my best friend, has sent his children to college. I can't let him outdo me. So I must contrive some way whereby I can send my son (or daughter) to college." So runs the argument that results in sending many boys and girls to college.

4. Another aim, somewhat akin to the previous one, is that of prestige. It means something in the social scale to say of someone that he or she has been away to college. This is even truer if the individual succeeded in staying long enough and working hard enough to tack a degree to his name.

5. Many parents want their children to succeed in the social world. Colleges, especially the coeducational ones, have built up such a social caste system via the fraternity and sorority route that it becomes the chief goal of some families to have son or daughter initiated into one of these social clubs. If the influence of these secret societies were confined to the college campuses, they might not loom as so important in the eyes of ambitious parents and their offspring. But there must be alumni and alumnae groups who, in after-

years, must live over their collegiate adolescent days. To be identified with one of these groups may help a chap to make a bigger sale or a girl to make a better marriage. In fact, there are many students, especially girls, who go to college for the express purpose of making a secret society. There are known instances where failure in this regard has meant the social ruination of a girl. Many have left college because of failure to attain this goal, *not* because of scholastic difficulties. There is probably no better illustration than this to show how the college has departed from the intellectual atmosphere of its ivory towers.

6. This next purpose is confined almost entirely to the female sex. It is to get a husband. It is true that the men don't object to dating, necking, and getting engaged. But this circumstance is more or less of a side issue, since they do have to face the serious problem of learning something that will help them to make a better living. It would be the exceptional male who would go to college for the purpose of getting married. He can always marry someone who hasn't necessarily acquired the same amount of formal schooling that he has, but not so for the young woman. If she goes to college and leaves her sweetheart behind, the chances are against an enduring engagement that will result in marriage. She will look down on such a husband as inferior to her, and he will come to resent this patronizing attitude. Not if she goes to college to improve her chances on the matrimonial market, she will have to find someone who is, at least, her educational equal. Just take a look around and see how many girls, already in their freshman year, have engagement rings or are "pinned." You can be sure that it isn't just an accident.

Much can be said for such forethought. The college, in this respect, performs an excellent eugenic service to the state. It makes it possible for young men and women to come together from various parts of the state, from various states, from various nations, and from various races, even, and to be united in a way that tends to break down the bias and selfish prejudice previously discussed. The world really needs more intermingling of this type, if ever the seeds of distrust are to be rendered infertile.

7. From the time that preparation for the ministry waned as an important reason for going to college there have always been those

who have gone to college for the fun of it. They were playboys who usually had more money than sense. It wasn't necessary that they learn anything in particular except what the college prescribed for them, because their parents expected to take them into the business some day. So they wanted their sons to have a good time while they were young, join the right crowd, wear flashy clothes, and run around in sporty convertibles. College was a place where they could sow their wild oats. Then they would be able to settle down to the onerous task of coupon clipping. These are the most vociferous rah-rah boys at football games and at class reunions. In order to be able to pass any of their courses they would wait until the end of the semester to hire a tutor, who for a nice, fat fee, would subject them to such a process of cramming that, with a modicum of intelligence, they could "knock off" the examination. The tutor would also provide them with such term reports as they might be required to hand in. Truly a butterfly existence! And we still have them.

8. There is still another purpose for which an appreciable number of men attend college. It is to participate in some form of the intercollegiate athletic program. So highly professionalized have many of our athletic events become these days, inducements are held out to promising youngsters in the secondary school to continue with their education in college. There are many of these boys who, if left to themselves, would never think of going to college.

Before we get too far in this discussion, let us not forget that there are many excellent students in our secondary schools who also are excellent athletes and to whom the athletic phase is secondary. These boys would go on to college anyway. In fact, many of them, after they get there, find that they have no time to participate in athletics, because success in their studies means so much more to them.

And so, athletic ability is in many cases an open sesame to college. Boys go to college to play football, baseball, basketball, tennis, to row, to run, etc. Some find, after a tryout, that they can't make the team. They abandon athletics and turn to their regular studies, they play on the "scrub," or they quit school. But that has not changed the original purpose that brought them to college.

Allied to athletic ability is any special talent that the secondary school pupil may have developed in such areas as band and dra-

matics. Many colleges are just as interested in securing as students those who may contribute to the musical and dramatic organizations of the institution as well as in the field of athletics. Secondary school pupils who are especially proficient on a musical instrument, in voice, or in dramatics realize that they may advance themselves in their fields of special talents by taking advantage of the opportunity to go to college. Consequently, the furtherance of ambitions along these special lines can be considered a motivating force on a par with athletic ability to enjoy the advantages of higher education.

Now all these aims do not exist independently of each other in the prospective student's mind. One may stand out prominently, with others in the background. They do represent a cross section of today's college student and his reasons for going to college. How many of them apply to you?

What Is a Liberal Education?

The term "liberal arts" is so common that it might be well to stop for a moment and discuss its meaning. Often the two terms "liberal arts" and "liberal education" are used interchangeably. We must, however, confess from the outset that any attempt on our part to interpret these terms will not meet with universal acceptance. Why? Because they are controversial issues in American education. There are those who would say that it is the education of the "free" man, deriving this interpretation from the Latin *liberi*, free men. Others prefer to refer to the verb form, *liberare*, to set free. The first group then proceeds to identify liberal education with intellectual pursuits, the reasoning being that only the free man has time to attend to those things that do not savor of the practical and even vocational side of life. Historically, it is not difficult to see how this meaning came about. Here is what *Webster's New International Dictionary* has to say: "liberal arts. (Tran. of L. *artes liberales* the higher arts, which, among the Romans, only freemen (*liberi*) were permitted to pursue.) In the Middle Ages, the seven branches of learning: grammar, logic, rhetoric, arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy. In modern times the liberal arts include the languages, sciences, philosophy, history, etc., which compose the curriculum of academic or collegiate education, as distinguished from technical or professional education."

This whole concept of education is one that is always associated with a class type of society. Secondary education, until the nineteenth century, was reserved for the sons of the upper and upper middle classes. The curriculum was a hand-me-down from all the ages that had preceded. It was dissociated from such lowly pursuits as how to earn a living, how to make a budget, how to bring up a family, etc. It was a partner in the doctrine of formal discipline, which postulated that the study of the seven liberal arts would train the mind so that it would of itself be capable of doing all these other things. The inevitable result was that the study itself of what were called the liberal arts subjects came to be identified with what we call liberal education. Let us put it another way. Liberal education was assumed to be the outcome of the study of the liberal arts. The liberal arts were taught in an institution that adopted the same name. Its curriculum emphasized those subjects that had no practical value. Ergo, the study of the subjects would produce a liberally educated man. The falsity of this stand is manifest in any examination of the characteristics of today's college graduates. The proof of the pudding is in the eating. If the position referred to above were true, then we should expect *all* college graduates to give evidence of intellectual growth and achievement, to have a better grasp of the interplay of national and international events, and to rid themselves of inherent smallnesses of character. Casual observation shows that such is not the case. The mere pursuit of certain subjects does not bring the results posited.¹

Since the colleges of today are taking on the aspects of the secondary schools of 30 years ago with respect to the democratization of their student population, and since they (the colleges) are in actuality departing from their professed liberality by the introduction of prelaw, premedicine, pre dentistry, prebusiness, etc., courses as an integral part of their offerings, it might be well to consider the second interpretation of a liberal education. In this instance it becomes one that sets one free from bias and selfish prejudices. To set free is the meaning of the verb form *liberare*. Here we have a very different interpretation. It is not the study of the subjects that then results in a liberal education. It is what the subjects do

¹ See pp. 274, 275 for a further discussion of the doctrine of formal discipline.

to the individual that counts. Students like you come to college with preconceived notions of people from other parts of the state, other states, and other countries, of religious beliefs and practices, of various forms of social behavior, such as dress, etiquette, dancing, smoking, and leisure pursuits, and of a philosophy of life. When they leave, they are different. That is, they are in most cases. Something has happened that has, so to speak, smoothed off some of the rough corners. They are not quite so opinionated. They are more tolerant of the social mores and behavior of others. In fact, not only have their attitudes been changed. More important still, their own behavior has been modified. They are not quite so biased as they used to be. Of their prejudices, some have disappeared, others have been disturbed.

Now what forces have thus set them free? Has it been that required course in English literature, that introductory course in sociology, that course in elementary psychology, that laboratory course in biology, that course in student teaching, that course in secondary education, that year in the Cosmopolitan Club, that editorship of the student daily, or that midnight serenade of the girls' dormitory? It may have been all, some, or none of these. The chances are that the campus activities of community living in dormitories and of participation in student organizations and social events have done more to set students free from bias and selfish prejudices than have many of their classroom experiences. The activity phase of campus life is something that is real to the student. The classroom activity is a chore that has to be done in the shortest, easiest way possible. Does that mean that the classroom has no influence in the liberalizing process? Not at all. The point we wish to emphasize is that it is not *what* is taught, it is the *way* it is presented that makes the difference. Two teachers can teach almost the same course, such as freshman literature, and yet students under each one will come out of the course very different. In the one case, they will have been subjected to a minute, dissection type of literary analysis. In the other, they will have had revealed to them the impact that their assigned readings have already made upon the world and now are making upon them. The first group has been subjected to scholarship, so-called, which is not to be confused with liberal education. The second group is being liberally educated.

Let us take a quite different illustration. Take a course like this one in secondary education. The content is being presented to you in this book. It is professedly a professional course, and yet the same kind of treatment can be accorded to it as in the case of freshman literature. One teacher can take the material presented here and have you learn it as so many facts of this and so many of that. Another one can take it and interpret it to you, and have you assist in its interpretation, in such a way that you will come out of the course with a greater respect for the educational systems of other countries and a more wholesome attitude toward the teachers of other subjects. That can be the contribution of a course like this one to polishing off some of the rough corners.

Even such a course as music appreciation, whether taught in secondary school or in college, can be taught from both angles. It can be taught from the point of view of the specialist as purely a technique course, or it can be taught as something that will open up to you a whole field of beauty and life, something that brings a new interpretation to what had previously been behind a closed door. An introductory chemistry course taught as a preliminary to majoring in chemistry can be less liberalizing in its influence than a course in marketing taught in the business school by a man who can get his students to see the relationship the course bears to the intensifying or the lessening of state and national barriers.

A liberal education, then, that sets you free from bias and selfish prejudices can be obtained on a college campus from two sources. One is from that type of classroom in which ideas are as important as facts, and where the teacher is able to bring home to you the part that what he teaches plays in your own thinking and in your own lives. The other source comes from your associations with others outside the classroom. When these two sources can be combined and become more the common practice, then we can hope for a more liberally educated college population.

It is the teacher more than the course that does the liberalizing.

General Education

"Present college programs are not contributing adequately to the quality of students' adult lives either as workers or as citizens. This

by specializing in some narrow aspect of the whole field. To establish their reputations as scholars, it becomes necessary that they teach their specialty by means of one or more courses. The retention of their positions on the faculty makes it necessary that they have students in those specialized classes, and so, not only each department, but each teacher within the department, develops an attitude of protecting a vested interest as an end in itself.

As a result, beginning or introductory courses required as a part of the general education program of each student have been organized as if each student were to major in the field represented by that course. The outcomes of this specialization have been that the academic left hand of education has been ignorant of what the practical right hand is doing. This means that today's student gets only a partial vision of what is going on in the world, and it is the world of today and the coming world of tomorrow in which his problems are located. (We must not overlook the fact that many of these problems have their origins in our yesterdays.)

It is only fair to state that some of these specialists have managed to retain a humanizing point of view in that they are still able to lead the student to comprehend the relationships that the subjects or courses they teach bear to the rest of the world. All too often, however, the opinion is held that, to maintain his status as a scholar, a teacher may not speak of matters in another man's field without giving offense to his brethren.

So far as modern education is concerned, the crux of the whole matter lies in the extent to which it is going to be possible to secure today the values of an education of a century ago that was replete with relationships between subject fields, even when, to our eyes, the available information was limited. Despite the fact that research techniques have produced such vast amounts of information that it is impossible for any one individual to acquire an encyclopedic type of knowledge, we believe that we can get that type of teaching that focuses attention on the essential significance of these elements in our heritage needed by men and women in order to understand better the world in which they live. There is actually today a growing recognition of the need of bringing together in some manner the divergent paths of specialists, so that the individual student may travel in the lane of a better understanding of the many phases of

is true in large part because the unity of liberal education has been splintered by overspecialization."²

A century ago the program of studies of both college and secondary school was based upon the adage that "knowledge is power" and upon the cold-storage theory of information. The adage and the theory were products of the doctrine of formal or mental discipline, which assumed that "what was sauce for the goose was sauce for the gander." Each student had to take the same amount of subject matter and to spend the same time upon it as his fellow student. The type of information was general in that each student was required to take all the important fields of available knowledge offered in the institution. The professors themselves taught in what we would designate today as broad fields. One man would teach all the history courses, another all the mathematics, a third all the science, and so on. Inasmuch as those teachers had come up through the same curriculum as that which their own students were taking, it was possible for them to bring to the attention of their students the essential relationships between the different fields of knowledge.

But knowledge has not remained static. By means of discovery and inventions, scholars and scientists have increased its scope to such an extent that it has become impossible for any one individual to encompass all that is known. The results have been two: the development of the specialist who confined his interests to a narrow phase of his field instead of to its broad aspects, and the emergence of the elective system, whereby a student took a certain number of courses in common with all other students, but elected the rest of them with a view to specializing more or less in one or two fields.

Specialization has increased to such an extent, even, that fields that used to be departments of a college have now become established as separate schools or colleges within a university. That particular division of higher education that is supposed to carry on the tradition of general education of the old college, now designated the liberal arts college, is organized into departments, each of which is striving to attain or preserve its place in the sun. The department is manned by teachers who have obtained their doctorate degrees

² The President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, vol. 1, *Establishing the Goals*, Harper & Brothers, 1948, p. 47.

by specializing in some narrow aspect of the whole field. To establish their reputations as scholars, it becomes necessary that they teach their specialty by means of one or more courses. The retention of their positions on the faculty makes it necessary that they have students in those specialized classes, and so, not only each department, but each teacher within the department, develops an attitude of protecting a vested interest as an end in itself.

As a result, beginning or introductory courses required as a part of the general education program of each student have been organized as if each student were to major in the field represented by that course. The outcomes of this specialization have been that the academic left hand of education has been ignorant of what the practical right hand is doing. This means that today's student gets only a partial vision of what is going on in the world, and it is the world of today and the coming world of tomorrow in which his problems are located. (We must not overlook the fact that many of these problems have their origins in our yesterdays.)

It is only fair to state that some of these specialists have managed to retain a humanizing point of view in that they are still able to lead the student to comprehend the relationships that the subjects or courses they teach bear to the rest of the world. All too often, however, the opinion is held that, to maintain his status as a scholar, a teacher may not speak of matters in another man's field without giving offense to his brethren.

So far as modern education is concerned, the crux of the whole matter lies in the extent to which it is going to be possible to secure today the values of an education of a century ago that was replete with relationships between subject fields, even when, to our eyes, the available information was limited. Despite the fact that research techniques have produced such vast amounts of information that it is impossible for any one individual to acquire an encyclopedic type of knowledge, we believe that we can get that type of teaching that focuses attention on the essential significance of these elements in our heritage needed by men and women in order to understand better the world in which they live. There is actually today a growing recognition of the need of bringing together in some manner the divergent paths of specialists, so that the individual student may travel in the lane of a better understanding of the many phases of

the activities that go to make up the world of today. The inescapable conclusion is that the first year or two should be laid in a broad foundation of interrelated subject matter and experiences calling for the recognition of the interrelationships between the various parts. It is upon this foundation, and upon it only, that any type of specialized training can be safely erected.

A program of some type of general education, or any other name that may be given to it, is desirable today as a part of the education of all individuals through the junior college period, irrespective of any type of specialization that may parallel or follow it. We must, however, avoid any conception of general education as being the exclusive province of a definite number of years of schooling. We feel that its major emphasis on the college level should be in that area which, under present conditions, is identified with the junior college, but that it cannot end there abruptly.

According to the President's Commission,³

it is the task of general education to provide the kinds of learning and experience that will enable the student to attain certain basic outcomes, among them the following:

1. To develop for the regulation of one's personal and civic life a code of behavior based on ethical principles consistent with democratic ideals.
2. To participate actively as an informed and responsible citizen in solving the social, economic, and political problems of one's community, State, and Nation.
3. To recognize the interdependence of the different peoples of the world and one's personal responsibility for fostering international understanding and peace.
4. To understand the common phenomena in one's physical environment, to apply the habits of scientific thought to both personal and civic problems, and to appreciate the implications of scientific discoveries for human welfare.
5. To understand the ideas of others and to express one's own effectively and intelligently in solving community health problems.
6. To attain a satisfactory and emotional adjustment.
7. To maintain and improve his own health and to cooperate actively and intelligently in solving community health problems.
8. To understand and enjoy literature, art, music, and other cultural

³ *Ibid.* pp. 50 ff.

activities as expressions of personal and social experience, and to participate to some extent in some form of creative activity.

9. To acquire the knowledge and attitudes basic to a satisfying family life.

10. To choose a socially useful and personally satisfying vocation that will permit one to use to the full his particular interests and abilities.

11. To acquire and use the skills and habits involved in critical and constructive thinking.

In the main, the above objectives differ from those later to be presented on the secondary school level only in the matter of maturity. More will be expected of the college student in the way of understandings and applications because of the 2- to 4-year advantage he holds over the secondary school pupil.

These objectives are not to be attained solely through present or new course offerings. Many of them will be accomplished through the everyday interplay of campus life and activities, especially with respect to lectures, concerts, plays, and exhibitions. Don't conclude, however, that courses are not important. Of course they are. But not the introductory courses that are taught as if every one of you who takes them intends to become a specialist in that particular field. This is the place where vested interests play hob with the students' interests. It is specialization gone to seed. That is why the cry has arisen for two modifications in introductory courses. The first is to fashion and teach them so that they apply to the objectives listed above. The second is to revamp so-called survey courses so that they present a cross section of the contributions of any area, such as science, literature, music, social studies, etc., to the solutions of contemporary civilization's problems, and so that, if possible, they demonstrate the relationship between and interdependence upon each other.

The first type of general course, that of reorganizing existing introductory courses in a subject area, would call for humanizing the content in psychology, literature, the fine arts, physical science, biological science, the social studies, health, oral and written expression, family living, and computation. All students, but each according to his own background, should have contact with these ten areas as contributory to a better understanding of themselves in relation to their environment. Since the majority of them will be in school

only 2 years, it seems desirable that most of these courses be placed in the first 2 years. Students who expect to graduate may profit more if they postpone some of these courses until later.

The second type of courses calls

for an integration of content and an attitude toward the student that are lacking both in existing elementary courses and in survey courses. The latter are seldom adequate for their purpose because they have no focus, and the relationships among the various bodies of material of which they are composed are left vague.

In a survey course in the natural sciences, for example, a segment on chemistry may be followed by one on physics, then another on geology, and so on, each segment presented by a specialist as an introduction to the field of his life work rather than as preparation for understanding the place of such subject matter in an intelligent life. For the purposes of general education these interdepartmental courses need much more integration and synthesis. [Such a course] may be organized around major human problems, drawing from all fields and divisions of knowledge whatever facts and principles are pertinent to these problems. Such a course might consider the relations between the individual and government. . . .

One of the most urgent needs for such courses is found in matters dealing with world understanding. Existing courses in international relations, concentrated as they are on matters of politics and diplomacy, do not serve the purpose. Nor do the standard courses in history, or even divisional courses in the humanities, since in both cases the content is drawn exclusively from the experience of the Western world.*

But whichever scheme is followed, that of revitalizing present introductory courses, survey courses, or integrated courses, the success of the venture rests upon the shoulders of those who organize and teach such courses. A course, in and of itself, is so much deadwood of fact and principle unless it is made to live by the teacher. As we pointed out in our discussion of liberal education, practically any course, even the most professional, can be made to contribute to a better understanding of life if the instructor wills to make it that kind of course. On the other hand, the superficially finest course in literature can be mentally asphyxiated by a dry-as-dust so-called scholar. In the final analysis, general education is what you yourselves get out of your college courses and your campus life.

* *Ibid.*, pp. 59-60.

One last word must be uttered. You are prospective teachers. You will often hear the challenge that the main purpose of the secondary school is general education. Except in certain limited areas, there is no place for any high degree of specialization. Life adjustment education, of which you are to hear so much, is general education on the secondary level. Teachers are being constantly accused of failure to point out relationships between the special subjects they teach and other subjects. The teacher of music knows nothing of the physics of sound, the teacher of literature is unaware of the historical significance of the age in which an author wrote, the teacher of nutrition cannot calculate the mathematical formulae required for diets, the general shop teacher cannot refer his pupils to historical references on furniture design, the teacher of speech limits the topics that his pupils can discuss because of his own limitations in fields of knowledge, and the teacher of a foreign language pays little attention to the health and sanitation problems that affect the lives of the people whose language is being studied.

If general education is a desideratum for any student who goes to college, it becomes doubly so for the person going into teaching. He, if anyone, needs to know enough, at least, to have some inkling of the interrelationships between his department and others in the same school. We do not expect him to be a know-it-all. That may have been possible for an Aristotle or a Bacon. Not so, any more. But we can expect him to be intelligent enough to have some idea as to what the following names stand for: Machiavelli, Bismarck, Euclid, Socrates, Benvenuto Cellini, Charlemagne, Gladstone, Dante, Michelangelo, Orville and Wilbur Wright, Newton, Masefield, Picasso, Thackeray, Confucius, Mahomet, Galileo, Toscanini, Frank Lloyd Wright, Marconi, Hugo, Goethe, Verdi, Mary Magdalene, Wagner, Genghis Khan, Absalom, Aaron, and Harriet Beecher Stowe. If you can't recognize most of these names and identify each one as to his contribution to man's history, you have either had a too narrow and restricted type of education, or you have failed yourself to retain the significant elements of what constitutes the world as an integrated whole.

What recks it them? What need they? They are sped;
And, when they list, their lean and fleshy songs

Grate on their scannell pipes of wretched straw;
The hungry sheep look up and are not fed,
But, swoln with wind and the rank must they draw,
Rot inwardly, and foul contagion spread.⁵

Who Should Attend College?

In our discussion of early school leavers, did the thought ever strike you that there was a possibility of a great loss of potential among these boys and girls?

Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear;
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen
And waste its fragrance on the desert air.

Some village Hampden, that with dauntless breast
The little tyrant of his fields withstood;
Some mute inglorious Milton here may rest,
Some Cromwell, guiltless of his country's blood.

There is always an "if" attached to every action of our living. "If I had done this," or "if I had done that, things would have been different." Every time that we have a choice to make, we must make our decision in one of two ways. After the choice is made, so is our fate decreed. There is no turning back. Just trace the steps by which you have arrived where you are today, and see how many times what we might call a hairbreadth decision started you in a certain direction. A word spoken by friend or enemy, a passage read in a book, a statement heard over the radio, a picture seen on the screen, a trip taken to a distant city, a thought or a dream entering your head, any one of these stimuli may have set in motion a train reaction of momentous consequences. And the direction may be forward, backward, or at a standstill. That is why you are in college, while some of your high school classmates are not.

The question might well be asked, "Which of you should be in college?" Are you the one who is profiting by the experiences you have had? Or might your counterpart, who isn't here, have received greater benefit? This is a question to which there can be no satisfactory answer so long as two conditions persist: the colleges restrict

⁵ John Milton, *Lycidas*.

admission to certain groups, or it is economically impossible for many deserving youth to go to college.

It stands to reason that a room can accommodate safely only a certain maximum number of people. A college is an institution with a limited staff, a limited budget, and a limited number of buildings for classroom, dormitory, laboratory, study, and library. To do justice to the educational program that it professes to carry on, it must say to candidates for entrance that it can accept only a certain number. To determine who will be included in this number, it sets up certain restrictions over and above the report of academic success on either entrance examinations or certificate of graduation, or both. *There is a variation among institutions as to which criteria are used*, but an inclusive list would be the following:

Rank in graduating class: percentile, tertile, or quartile

Letter of recommendation: Principal, teacher, classmate, alumnus, clergyman, business man

Record in extracurricular activities

Statement of financial status

Certificate of health examination

School membership in a regional accrediting association

An independent institution can set up any special requirements that it chooses. It is under no particular obligation to accept Tom, Dick, or Harry. Such is not the case with publicly supported institutions. Supposedly, they are the capstone of the state's educational system. The constitutions of some states specifically say that education shall be free and gratis to all from the lowest to the highest forms of education, including the university. If, then, the graduate of an approved secondary school wishes to enter the state university, this institution cannot legally refuse his application if he meets the pattern of entrance requirements laid down by the institution. This same privilege does not have to be extended to out-of-state applicants. Some state-supported schools admit candidates on the basis of *their graduation from an approved secondary school*. In other words, secondary school graduation requirements are the accepted pattern for college entrance.

Naturally, the state institution receives a heterogeneous mass of students. Its task of providing suitable educational opportunities for

all of them is considerably more complicated than is the one that faces the privately endowed institution. And with an ever-increasing number of applicants knocking on the door, it is becoming increasingly difficult to decide just who should and who should not be admitted to college. The increase in attendance since 1900 has been spectacular.

In 1900 fewer than 250,000 students, only 4 percent of the population 18 through 21 years of age, were enrolled in institutions of higher education. By 1940, the enrollment had risen to 1,500,000 students, equal to a little less than 16 percent of the 18-21 year olds. In 1947, enrollments jumped to the theretofore unprecedented peak of 2,354,000 although approximately 1,000,000 of the students were veterans. . . .

This record of growth is encouraging, but we are forced to admit nonetheless that the educational attainments of the American people are still substantially below what is necessary either for effective individual living or for the welfare of our society.

According to the U.S. Bureau of Census, almost 17,000,000 men and women over 19 years of age in 1947 had stopped their schooling at the sixth grade or less. Of these, 9,000,000 had never attended school or had stopped their schooling before completing the fifth grade. In 1947, about 1,600,000, or 19 percent, of our high school age boys and girls were not attending any kind of school, and over two-thirds of the 18- and 19-year old youths were not in school.

These are disturbing facts. They represent a sobering failure to reach the educational goals implicit in the democratic creed, and they are indefensible in a society so richly endowed with material resources as our own. We cannot allow so many of our people to remain so ill equipped as human beings or as citizens in a democracy.

One of the gravest charges to which American society is subject is that of failing to provide a reasonable equality of educational opportunity for its youth. For the great majority of our boys and girls, the kind and amount of education they may hope to attain depends, not on their own abilities, but on the family or the community into which they happen to be born, or, worse still, on the color of their skin or the religion of their parents. . . .

By allowing the opportunity for higher education to depend so largely on the individual's economic status, we are not only denying to millions of young people the chance in life to which they are entitled; we are also depriving the Nation of a vast amount of potential leadership and potential social competence which it sorely needs. . . .

It is all too clear that whether one considers regional variations or urban-rural differentials, the fact is that the future citizens of the Nation are being born in disproportionately large numbers in communities in which economic resources are the weakest, the plane of living the lowest, cultural conditions the poorest, and the home the least well equipped to contribute either to the physical well being of youth or to their intellectual development. . . .

The only possible solution of the problem is, as rapidly as possible, to raise economic and cultural levels in our less advanced areas, and in the meantime to provide outside assistance that will enable these areas to give their children equal educational opportunities with all others in the Nation.⁶

This statement fails to take into account the impossibility of equality for all. Raising levels is one thing. Equality is another. As the lower levels are raised, so are the higher. What was the cultural level of the upper classes in the so-called dark ages is now the level of the lower classes. The kind of job that required only elementary schooling of the applicant a half century ago now requires secondary. Similarly, the position that was satisfied to hire an applicant with a secondary school diploma now demands that he have a baccalaureate degree. In the last quarter of the nineteenth century \$1000 a year provided one with all the necessities and many of the luxuries of life. Will it do that today?

Barriers, other than geographical and economic, are given as: the restricted curriculum of the college that tends to provide programs for only the academically minded, the disadvantage caused by the segregation of Negro schools, and the quota system. In order to make it possible for a qualified individual, no matter what his economic status, race, or creed may be, to attain "the kind of education suited to his aptitudes and interests," the Commission made the following recommendations:

1. High school education must be improved and should be provided for all normal youth.

2. The time has come to make education through the fourteenth grade available in the same way that high school education is now available.

⁶The President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*; vol. 1, *Establishing the Goals*, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1948, pp. 25-32 *passim*.

3. The time has come to provide financial assistance to competent students in the tenth through the fourteenth grades who would not be able to continue their education without such assistance.

4. The time has come to reverse the present tendency of increasing tuition and other student fees in the senior college beyond the fourteenth year, and in both graduate and professional schools, by lowering tuition costs in publicly controlled colleges and by aiding deserving students through inaugurating a program of scholarships and fellowships.

5. The time has come to expand considerably our program of adult education, and to make more of it the responsibility of our colleges and universities.

6. The time has come to make public education at all levels equally accessible to all, without regard to race, creed, sex, or national origin.¹

Such a program as outlined above envisages a tremendous increase in the number of those who will be able to enjoy the advantages of higher education, and a corresponding expansion in the building and staff facilities of colleges and universities. According to the Commission's idea, it seems that the burden will fall on the publicly supported institutions. If these are not to become out-and-out assembly lines of educational production, the taxpayers of each state will have to be willing to tax themselves much more heavily than is the present case, or some means must be devised to make the desirable educational opportunities available. Just as radio, especially the FM station, is now employed for adult education programs, so will television play an even larger part in the curricular offerings within the next few years.

It seems that the answer to our question as to who should go to college is not so much a query as to how candidates are to be selected as it is to find out where they are and then make it possible for them to attend. Since it is generally admitted that even all gifted individuals are not uniformly endowed, it behooves the college or university to broaden and liberalize its offerings so that the intellectual, the thinker, the creative genius in any medium whatsoever, the business man, the artist, the homemaker, the athlete, the musician, all may become better, each in his own field and in his job as a citizen because of what college has done for him.

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 37-38.

Education for Women

A matter of everyday expectancy, education of girls and women, was once nonexistent, that is, so far as schools were concerned. Girls learned from their mothers the duties that a woman was expected to perform. And what were these duties? Everything connected with the care and administration of a family. The girl was trained to become a wife and a mother. Nothing of this sort was worthy of inclusion in the curriculum of the school. In fact, girls were not worthy of being allowed even to go to school. They were inferior to their brothers not only physically, but mentally. The rarer academic heights scaled by the boys were definitely beyond their reach and comprehension.

Such an attitude toward education for girls was the prevailing one until the eighteenth century, when the new world across the Atlantic opened up doors that had been hitherto closed to them. The dominance of the male in European society was an inheritance from tribal days, when he was the warrior and the leader. As civilization developed, and as society settled down into more or less definite patterns, the supreme position of the master of the household and the ruler of the land persisted. Social equality might have been attained in court society, but in ordinary life, the woman was usually the underdog. In the new world, more and more power over the home fell upon the women, as they had to share with their men the dangers, hazards, and companionship attendant upon opening up the wilderness.

There is an old adage, "Give them an inch and they'll take an ell." This is what happened in the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries. The very nature of the kind of life lived by the frontier women led gradually to the assumption on their part of a greater equality with their men. The give and take of fighting common battles, of sharing common joys and sorrows, was bound to result in an increasing interest on the part of women in all the activities of the men of the family. The sister would ask her brother about what he was learning in the grammar school or academy. She would even go so far as to try to do some of his lessons. She found that she could. What more natural than for her to begin to wonder

why she should not be allowed to go to school? When enough of them began to have the same ideas, the next step was to bring pressure to bear upon school officials to admit girls. This is what happened in the case of the academy of the eighteenth century.

But the barriers were still down when it came to the question of going to college. Men had been willing to yield to giving girls the advantage of secondary education, although no modification was made in the offerings of a school built along the lines of the classical tradition. In fact, girls preferred to take the same doses meted out to boys, because they wanted to prove that they were the intellectual equals of the boys. Indeed, research on the subject has revealed that girls often surpass boys in scholastic grade averages in the so-called academic areas. Nevertheless, opposition was still so strong against admitting women to men's colleges that "of the 61 colleges established in the United States by 1834, not one 'was dedicated' to the cause of women's education. A number of female seminaries had been established, giving instruction in literature, art, music, and conduct, but not including curricula paralleling those of institutions for men. In the third quarter of the last century a number of female seminaries became women's colleges, and state universities began to open their doors to women students. Many, however, believed that such developments were a mistake, and as late as 1871 one authority stated, "If females persist in attempting to endure the rigor of hard study, hospitals and asylums must need be erected alongside of colleges for women. . . . Higher education of females is a mistake full of unreason and fruitful of sorrow."²

Most of the schools for women established during the nineteenth century were called seminaries. Three of the most outstanding were established by Emma Willard in Troy, New York, Catherine Beecher in Hartford, Connecticut, and Mary Lyon in Mount Holyoke, Massachusetts. The first two aimed definitely at devising a curriculum that was different from that advocated for men. Little by little the trend grew to introduce and emphasize more of the subjects taught in men's schools, until finally the desire for educational opportunity blossomed out into a demand for a type of education the same as that provided for men. There was no chance to obtain such an education in a man's school, because colleges for men simply refused

² *Ibid.*, pp. 39-40.

to have anything to do with women. The only recourse for the women was to establish colleges for themselves. Vassar College became the first such institution in 1875, although it was opened in 1865. Other colleges were Mt. Holyoke, Wellesley, Smith, and Bryn Mawr. Just as men's colleges were typical of the east, so did those for women become similarly an eastern product.

This situation was not true west of the Alleghenies, where the restrictive social customs of the seaboard states held much less sway. Antioch College and Oberlin College, both in Ohio, were coeducational by the middle of the century. Other denominational colleges and even state universities opened their doors to women in the last half of the century. When this did happen, the women had finally attained the goal for which they had been striving, an opportunity to pursue the same subjects as those studied by the men.

We can say, then, that the characteristic female education on the college level has, for the past century, been on a par with man's. There have been a few schools in different parts of the country that have proclaimed their individuality by laying more stress on female accomplishments, although they have not had much influence on the national program. But doubts are arising over the land as to the teleological success that has attended women's aping of men. For that is exactly what has happened. The "I am as good as you are" proclamation would be substantiated only by putting it to the test.

Now results have to be interpreted in terms of the purposes that govern an individual's life in a particular type of society. If the family is an important cog in the social engine that keeps the machinery moving, then it is essential that those who run the family, the parents, do the job well. The mores of the tribe, clan, or state, determine the allocation of responsibilities between man and wife. The father trains the son, and the mother the daughter, in whatever activities each will later be required to perform. There has been an age-long belief that to woman falls the lot of the more direct management of the family. The father is the provider. In the horse and buggy era, the two were not too far separated. On the farm they were with each other constantly. In the village, the father was always home for his meals and for the evening. There was much sharing in all that took place in the home. The learning activities of

son and daughter were modeled after those of the parents, the girl after her mother, the son after his father. The chief end of the boy was to prepare himself for a job. The chief end of the girl was to get married and have her own family.

But times changed, and so did the home. More and more fathers found work in factories. They had to get up and have an early breakfast so as to be at work by 7 o'clock. Or, if they didn't work in factories, they lived so far from their places of business, often in the suburbs, that they had to commute on early and late afternoon trains. They didn't come home for lunch. They got home all tired out, just in time for dinner (or supper). That meant that the mothers had charge of the children during most of their waking hours. Consequently, the mothers began to exercise more control over the family. Another factor that separated children from their mothers as well as their fathers was the compulsory school law, which compelled youngsters in most states to attend school until they were 16. Mothers were thus given more leisure to spend on themselves.

All the above social changes have coincided with the increase in the number of women who have had the advantages of taking courses in secondary schools and colleges primarily designed for men. Many of these women have become intensely dissatisfied with the idea of getting married and leading what they would like to think of as a humdrum existence, have attempted to carve out a career for themselves and, in many cases, have succeeded. Then, after a few years as career girls or women, they have succumbed to the same biological urge as their sisters and have found themselves husbands. In some cases they have given up the career. In others, they have tried to ride the two horses of career and home.

If we make two assumptions: one, that people with better brains go to college, and, two, that those who go to college expect to get something out of their experiences in college that will make it worth while for them to attend, then it is only natural for us to ask ourselves if the results are commensurate with the expectations. These results should reveal, should they not, that better social conditions have been effected, that the home is a better place for children, that family life has become more stable, and that the intellectual level of society has been raised, i.e., that more intelligence is being exercised in the conduct of all social and individual enterprises.

In 1940, the group of well-educated women included a larger percentage of single women than did the group of lower educational attainment. This group also included those who reported giving birth to the fewest number of children. Although there has been an increase in the fertility rate among this group up to 1947, so that the fertility differentials between the groups of higher and lower educational attainment have been narrowed, nevertheless the relationship between fertility and amount of education continued to be an inverse one. In 1940, the replacement index of 1000 or more was reached only by those women who had not gone beyond the grade school. In 1947, for women who had had one to three years in college, the index went from 672 in 1940 to 1070 in 1947 and for those with four years from 522 to 948.⁹

When differences in ages of wives in the various income groups are accounted for, fertility rates show a consistent inverse relationship with family income. . . . Married couples in the lowest income groups had a rate of children under 5 years old that was roughly two-thirds higher than that prevailing among couples in the highest income group. The decline in rates of young children with advancing income is especially noticeable above the family income level of \$4000 a year.¹⁰

Between 1910 and 1950, households contracted in size by 8 per cent. On the average, there were 3.39 persons per household in March, 1950, as compared to 3.67 in April, 1940. In April, 1930, there were 4.01 persons per household.¹¹

"Culture-heredity," the transmission of a culture complex from one generation to the next, demands that those who are to perpetuate it be immersed in the best of a culture. Surely the present birth-pattern does not achieve that end, and we can even wonder whether the situation may not be more immediately alarming in its threats of cultural erosion, and a quick blackout that way. . . .

Biologically, the situation is more alarming than such an estimate indicates. . . . The brighter children of the grade school parents are continually moving into the high school and college brackets; and in the process they are presumably suffering the same sterilizing blight which

⁹ Bureau of the Census, "Population Reports," *Current Population Reports*, Dept. of Commerce Series P-20, No. 18, Washington, D.C., June 30, 1948, pp. 5-6.

¹⁰ Bureau of the Census, "Marital Fertility," *Current Population Reports*, Dept. of Commerce Series P-20, No. 27, Washington, D.C., February 3, 1950, pp. 2-3.

¹¹ Bureau of the Census, "American Households Decline in Size," *Current Population Reports*, Dept. of Commerce Series P-20, No. 31, Washington, D.C., September 27, 1950, p. 1.

seems to be the inevitable concomitant of education as it is purveyed in the United States today. The less bright offspring of the high school and college groups are drifting down into the grade-school group, where they will doubtless achieve a higher fecundity. . . . Surely those who pass through the sieve of educational and economic proficiency are averagely, with large individual variations, somewhat more intelligent than those who do not. Only if it can be shown that it is possible to increase the butterfat content of milk by skimming it and throwing away the cream can we be justified in viewing present birth trends complacently.

We might argue on the basis of the census evidence that our educational system is primarily a highly effective sterilizing device. But surely this is only half the truth. Any intelligent person, in position to decide on the basis of facts, must accept the reality that child bearing is expensive. It is easy to substitute luxuries for necessities in deciding what is essential for the rearing of children, and without too much mental anguish to rationalize oneself into very selfish attitudes.¹²

In 1946 and 1947, the Population Reference Bureau, with the aid of a representative group of colleges and universities, made a study of those who had graduated 25 years previously, in 1921 and 1922. An interpretation of the results was presented by Clarence J. Gamble.¹³

The male graduates of the class of 1922 from 29 colleges report only 1.72 children each. This is a failure to replace themselves by 18 percent. Nor were the results from 1921 more encouraging. Thirty-five men's colleges reported an average of only 1.76 children per graduate.

The women graduates are even less productive. Those of 1922 average only 1.35 children apiece, failing to reproduce themselves by 36 percent. The women of 1921 from 38 colleges did only a little better, with 1.43 children.

The difference between the birthrates of the two sexes results largely from the difference in numbers who married. While 92 percent of the 1922 alumni married, only 75 percent of the women did. That their family plans were almost identical, and at an unfortunately low level, was shown by the 1.81 for each married woman and 1.56 children for each married man.

¹² Robert C. Cook, "Genic and Cultural Erosion in America," *J. Heredity*, 37, 77-80 *passim* (1948).

¹³ Clarence J. Gamble, "The College Birthrate," *J. Heredity*, 38, 355-362 (1947).

Gamble mentions, as did Cook, the high cost of having children as a deterrent to larger families. He also has this to say about careers versus marriages.

Many men graduating from college today enter the business world with the feeling that their primary mission is to earn prestige and power against competition. Because children may interfere with the attainment of such goals, they tend to be relegated to, at least, a secondary place in the value hierarchy. As time passes the other imperatives replace children and in the end the score is one child—or frequently none.

Some women's colleges instill an attitude in their students which makes them feel that their talents will be wasted as mere housewives. As a result, many graduates, even if they do not follow a career to the extent of spinsterhood and childless homes, strictly limit their families in order to continue intellectual pursuits and part-time or volunteer jobs.

A last quotation from Gamble answers the question that you might raise: Haven't there always been more children born on the lower intellectual levels than on the higher, and isn't that the same situation which exists today?

Two centuries ago, when Yale's graduates were contributing five surviving children each, *the high mortality among the children of the less intelligent allowed a smaller proportion of that group to grow up and reproduce* [italics mine]. Today modern medicine has reduced the death rate of all groups, *but only among the intelligent and competent is the birthrate low* [italics mine]. To be truly democratic, all groups should contribute proportionally to the reproduction of the race. Those intellectually and financially able to rear large families should do so. The burden of many children should not be put upon those least able and poorly prepared to raise them.

Where are we now with respect to higher education for women? It is difficult, at best, to say that any one particular effect is attributable to a specific cause. The conclusion is inescapable that the attitude toward marriage and family is in inverse ratio to the amount of education received. But whether the pursuit of a curriculum organized for the male of the species by the female of the same is the responsible factor may be open to question. We repeat a statement already made, that we do not deny that woman has sufficiently proved herself capable of studying what was originally planned for her brothers. Nor do we deny that there are certain areas, informa-

tion from which may be profitably acquired by both groups. But we do claim that the aping of a man's college has gone so far that the biological and sociological fact that a woman is a woman has been overlooked.

In a study made in 1941,¹⁴ 92 percent of men graduates were gainfully employed, 72 percent by others, and 28 percent in business for themselves. Seventeen percent were in education, 15 in medicine and dentistry, 11 in the sciences, 5 in government, 10 in law, 2 in arts, and 37 in business. Of the women graduates, 91 percent were grouped together under gainfully employed 56 percent, housewives 35 percent, and retired 4 percent. Sixty-eight percent of those gainfully employed were in education, 17 percent in business, and 5 percent or less in each of the fields of medicine and dentistry, government, sciences, and arts. Only 45 percent of the women graduates had married, and 3.5 percent of these had been divorced.

College graduate, or not, the woman ultimately has a home of her own, be it one with a husband, or as a spinster. And if she does have a career for long or for short, she is more likely to go into teaching than into any other field. Should not some differentiation be made in providing for her and guiding her into those courses and activities that will be more profitable to her as a woman? One of the best solutions to this vexing problem is posed by the president of Mills College. He states that there are three objectives which must be observed.

First, women must be consciously prepared to handle the crisis of the twenties and that of the forties, neither of which a man ever has to meet. . . .

Second, a girl must be led to a clear and unemotional understanding of the peculiar development of the condition of women in our society. . . .

Third, and by far the most important, a young woman should study in an atmosphere in which it is taken for granted that women are as worthy of respect as men and that the things they tend to do best are as significant and honorable as the things men tend to do best.¹⁵

What President White suggests is that a newer kind of humanism—the sociology of philosophy, the psychology of literature, and cul-

¹⁴ F. Lawrence Babcock, *The United States College Graduate*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941.

¹⁵ Lynn White, Jr., *Educating Our Daughters*, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1950, pp. 62-63.

tural history, as the anthropology of civilized peoples—be offered for women. The hand should be applied to the "minor" arts. A study of the family must permeate the humanism previously mentioned. A study of diet, textiles, clothing, costume design, interior decorating is essential for a well-rounded life. And since she may, even though married, be forced to fend for herself, if her husband dies or she is divorced, she should, with a view to this possible emergency, try to prepare for the future by acquiring some skills that might later be adapted to vocational purposes.

Reasons for Poor Articulation Between Secondary School and College

If you are upper classmen, you well know that many who started in with you as freshmen are no longer in school. Some of them left before the end of the first year. Almost half of them did not return for their third year. Aside from the fact that many of them may not have intended to remain and graduate, there were, as you yourselves know, difficulties that confronted them, and even you, in making suitable adjustments to the new life that college presented. There were times, undoubtedly, when you, too, had a "what's the use?" feeling and almost quit. Somehow you managed to pull through, while these others succumbed. What are some of the reasons that make it hard for many secondary school boys and girls to meet the challenge that college presents?

1. The environment is a new one. Life, in general, consists of a succeeding series of adjustments to changed conditions. The youngster goes from home to the kindergarten or first grade. From the elementary school he goes to the junior or senior high school. During this period he also goes to Sunday school. During school, or after school, he finds a job. In all these instances, he must adjust himself to new surroundings and to new faces. If he has been sheltered too much at home, it will be more difficult for him to make himself a part of the new group than if he had been allowed to exercise some independence. Sometimes the family moves to another locality. The problem of adjustment is then a more abrupt one. Everybody has to begin anew. Some have no difficulty, others have a hard time.

And so it is with colleges. You come from all kinds of homes, all kinds of communities, and all kinds of schools. If, in all these in-

stances, you have kept pretty much to yourself, if you have never spent a night away from home, and if you have never participated in any form of activity such as athletics, dramatics, or band, you may feel like a lost soul. Of course, you will be homesick for a while, but that phase of nostalgia will soon pass in the excitement of orientation week, getting acquainted with dormitory mates, and signing up for courses. If you put yourself out to meet others halfway, you will soon lose yourself, more or less, in the swim of things. But there are those who never do get over the feeling of strangeness and aloofness that assails them when they come to the campus. To themselves they appear to be so small and insignificant that they just can't come out of their shells of inferiority and break loose. This may be particularly true where the school is a large one, and where it is easy to be submerged in the bigness of everything. The small college may make this type of adjustment an easier one.

2. There is a new-found freedom that greets the college student, a freedom that he may much abuse. In the secondary school he has been held responsible for going to 4 or 5 classes daily and going to the library or study hall when he had no classes. Attendance was taken every period. Then, when he came to college, he found that he had to go to class only 15 or 16 periods a week, and that what he did with the rest of his time was his own business. And that certainly is what it does become. He puts off until tomorrow "the evil day thereof;" he "joes" and cokes. In fact, he enjoys himself mightily. When the day of reckoning comes, he draws a zero. He packs up and goes home.

3. Many of you discovered that the course in freshman composition was a regular bugbear. In fact, it was tough. The plaint that the secondary school did not prepare you to make a smooth transition from secondary school to college is so universal that secondary schools ought to wake up and take notice. By the time you became high school seniors, most of you, even if not all, had a rather definite idea that you were or were not going to try to go to college. Your school had this information about you. Why it didn't do something about it is one of those mysteries that can be explained only as due to inertia.

4. Closely allied to the difficulty you experience in English composition is the inexperience you have had with essay examinations

and term reports. In so many secondary schools the only kind of examination that you have taken is of the objective type, where you have checked "true" or "false," have filled in blank spaces, have matched items with each other, and have made 1 choice out of 4 or 5. You have not been given the experience of writing out in essay form what you actually know about anything. It is true that the objective examination is coming into favor among colleges and universities, but the essay examination is still in use. The preparation of term reports also presents a problem to you. You haven't been taught how to prepare them.

5. You have never learned how to study. What we mean is that you have not learned how to make the best use of your time, how to budget it, so that you might do all the things you want to do. In your secondary school you may not have had to do much homework. In college, it's all homework. Every bit of preparation has to be done on your own time. Your professor doesn't have any oversight or supervision of how you do your work or when you do it. In fact, very seldom does he take the time or trouble to tell you how to study. You are on your own.

6. You don't know how to use the library and you are afraid to go there. How to find what you want in the card catalog is something that you haven't learned. In secondary school, if you did use the library, you probably asked for the book you wanted or you got it off the open shelf. But even if you do get the book you want, you haven't learned how to get out of it what you need.

7. You find courses quite similar to those you have had in the secondary school. You have assumed that they are identical. What you do, then, is to coast along for the first few weeks. Then, all of a sudden, you come to something new. You have been taking things so easy that you are caught unawares. You then become discouraged and become a drifter in the course.

8. You fail to take your academic life seriously. Early in your career you are encouraged to participate in one activity or more. If you have had this type of experience in the secondary school, the adjustment along this line will be easy. But if not, then you may "lose sight of the woods for the trees." You may spend so much time on the activity side of your life that the academic side will suffer to such an extent that you may find yourself "out in the cold."

9. The last in our list of problems of adjustment is concerned with finance. It is astounding to learn how little some people know about the annual costs of attending college. This is especially true of those who have serious purposes in attending college but who are low in financial reserves. They come to school with barely enough money to pay tuition costs and to see them through the first few weeks. It becomes absolutely necessary for them to procure a job of some kind. Often the job takes so much time that the individual has little time to study. Worse than that, he must keep his nose so close to the grindstone that he must pass up the opportunity to participate in any of the activities of campus life. Sometimes the burden becomes so heavy that he finds it better to quit school and seek regular employment.

What Are Schools and Colleges Doing to Improve the Articulation Between Them?

We have discussed the causes for unsatisfactory adjustment between secondary school and college. Some of these, of an entirely personal nature, cannot be circumvented by the school. But there are ways in which both the secondary school and the college can assist in lessening, not eliminating, certain elements in poor articulation.

1. *College day.* One day in the year, representatives from the colleges that the students are most likely to attend will visit the school. One of these representatives will discuss the values of a college education and the kind of preparation that you need to make. Then you all have the privilege of having a conference with as many of these representatives as you wish to see concerning items that are related to their particular schools. You will receive catalogs and publicity pamphlets that treat of both the academic and the activity life of the college.

2. *The excursion.* This type of activity is carried on in two ways. The college invites musical organizations, speech groups, student councils, etc., to meet on its campus, thereby affording the secondary school pupils a chance to see what the campus is like. Familiarity is an enemy to strangeness. Senior classes often plan an excursion as part of their senior week festivities. These excursions sometimes include a tour of the campuses of the major state schools.

3. *A class in senior English.* Such a class should have for its express purpose that of orienting the pupil to those phases of college life that it can best serve. These are: exercises in grammar, English composition, how to use the card catalog, how to make digests of articles that are read, how to make an outline, how to write a term report, how to study outside of class, how to write an essay examination. Students who are fortunate enough to receive such assistance as this will rise up and call their teachers blessed. Such a course as the one described should be a requirement, if possible, for all those who are planning to go to college.

4. *The senior homeroom.* What is done here depends upon the size of the school. In the small school it would be folly for all the seniors to have as their project a study of college life. In cases such as this, the matter becomes a personal one between a certain teacher and the one or more planning to go to college. This teacher can give the interested pupils catalogs and pamphlets put out by those institutions that they might want to attend. He can also suggest the reading of some books that deal with college life.¹⁰ In the large school, the group that is planning to go to college can meet as a separate *homeroom* or as an *extracurricular group*. In either case, a once-a-week meeting will be devoted to a study of adjustment to college. These are the more likely topics that pupils will be interested to investigate: various kinds of colleges, the advantages of small and large institutions, the outstanding fields in each institution, the methods of making out course selections, required and elective subjects, the differences in the degrees offered, dormitory accommodations, the social life of the campus, the opportunities to participate in various kinds of extracurricular activities, the requirements for membership in honorary societies, campus geography, i.e., the location of the various buildings, the different kinds of cost, tuition, textbooks, board and lodging, fraternity dues, and pocket money, and the opportunities and remuneration for work. It is also worth while to have some former pupil of the school now in college talk to the group about his experiences and answer questions.

5. *Orientation week.* Freshman students are required to come a week or a few days before school opens in the fall. They are taken

¹⁰ Max McCann, *Planning for College*, Frederick A. Stokes Company, Philadelphia, 1937.

on a tour of the campus, lectured to by faculty members and prominent student representatives, given aptitude and placement tests, all with a view to making sure that these incoming students don't get lost and that any feelings of strangeness they may have will be worn off sooner than if the orientation week had not been available.

6. *Illustrated materials and brochures.* Independent colleges have universally engaged in the practice of publishing very attractive dodgers, pamphlets, and brochures extolling the merits of the institution and acquainting the prospective student with its characteristics and traditions. State-supported schools have adopted this practice. The aim is to break down the reserve of the individual by letting him in on the inner life of the school, so that, unconsciously, as it were, he begins himself to feel a part of the institution, even before he arrives on its campus.

7. *Visiting day.* Graduates of the high school are invited to return for a special convocation or college day to talk to present seniors on their experiences and to relay to the seniors any bits of counsel and advice that may set their minds at ease with respect to such problems of orientation as are causing them any feeling of uneasiness.

Any one, or any combination, of the above methods may serve as useful agents in combatting that gap, which in spite of all preachments, still exists between the spring of high-school graduation and the entering of college three or four months later.

What Is College Success?

There is much talk about the relationship between success in college and success in later life. Several studies have been made in an effort to measure this relationship. Before we look into any of these studies, however, it might be well for us to consider those elements that are associated with success in college and those connected with success in life after college. First we shall present the college side.

1. *A high scholastic record.* This is the usual interpretation of success in college. If it culminates in election to *Phi Beta Kappa*, *Sigma Xi*, or a professional honorary, even greater success has been achieved.

2. *Membership in a fraternity or sorority.* This is success on the social level.

3. *Prominence in campus life.* There are various ways in which success is measured along this line.

- a. Membership on the varsity team of one sort or another
- b. Being granted a "letter"
- c. Captain of a varsity team
- d. Campus queen. With the multiplicity of queens selected or chosen for so many different interests, it is possible that this type of success may be considerably cheapened in value.
- e. President of a student organization
- f. President of the student governing body
- g. Member of the student governing body
- h. Member of a campus honorary
 - i. Being a member of a lot of organizations
 - j. Being editor or on the editorial staff of the student paper
 - k. Editor of the yearbook
 - l. Star in a campus theatrical production
- m. Member of the glee club or similar organization
- n. Cheerleader

4. *Newspaper publicity*

Just as in life outside the school, success, of a type, is measured by the number of times your name is mentioned in the paper and the prominence of its display. Campus rods are especially anxious for this type of publicity. It is important that their names be mentioned, if only in a list with other names. Another evidence of this type of success is the number of lines you can append under your name in the senior annual.

Success in Adult Life

By way of comparison, it is necessary to list those elements of success by which the world gauges its people of prominence and preëminence. In a society in which the material side of life plays such a large part, success is usually measured in terms of the material. Let us see what some of these measures are.

1. *Financial reward, or just plain money.* Size of income is the norm most commonly adhered to. There is a widespread notion among people in general that teachers, the profession that many of

you are planning to follow, are not successful because their salaries do not equal in amount those received by the majority of other professional people in the community.

2. *Position, or the type of job that one holds.* Here we have a whole category of rank. It correlates rather highly with income. Your success in life grows as you mount the ladder of position. According to this point of view, the president of a company is more successful than the vice-president, he more than the office manager, he more than the factory superintendent, he more than the foreman, he more than the machinist, and he more than the common laborer. In reverse order, we have the classroom teacher, the department chairman, the dean of boys, the vice-principal, the principal, the assistant superintendent, and the superintendent. Whoever is at the top is, by the virtue of this position, deemed more successful than anyone under him.

3. *Position, or place in society.* In spite of our protestations that we, in a democracy, do not have a caste system, deep down in our yearning hearts we do look up to those who are called our "first families." Priority, "they were the first to arrive and settle here"; and time, "they have lived here for five generations," combine to build up a form of social prestige that tends to set these families aside as something special. It is true that newcomers often break into this charmed circle through sheer weight of money and position, but usually it is, more or less, a closed corporation. For one on the outside to marry into this group is a real achievement. Hollingshead gives a good description of this group.¹⁷

4. *Fame, or reputation.* Here we have an admiration for the man who has done something particularly well and who is rewarded by the plaudits of his fellow workers, by some special organization, or by the world at large. We have the Pulitzer awards and the Nobel prizes as examples of outstanding awards. Organizations give prizes for especially excellent contributions or performances. Election to office is another method of recognition. Having a book adopted by one of the book clubs for its monthly distribution, being selected as the winner in an amateur contest, building an automobile that is

¹⁷ A. B. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1949, pp. 84-90.

within reach of the common man, discovering an arresting agency for diabetes, being an outstanding interpreter of folk music, all these accomplishments enter into our conception of the successful man.

5. *Publicity, or public mention.* To put it baldly, what this amounts to is the number of times your name appears in the paper or any other type of publication. The theory is that constant repetition will cause people to believe that you really are an important figure. Advertising writers and make-up artists use this method to perfection. If you see the name of a product or hear it mentioned over the radio often enough you come to believe that it must be a good thing for you to buy. And so it is with publicity. If you see somebody's name in the paper over and over again, you begin to think that he must be somebody. In fact, that is the way that many reputations are built. In many instances, of course, there is a sound basis for the publicity, such as in the case of Albert Einstein, but in others it is phony.

One measure of publicity is the inclusion of an individual's name among the *American Men of Science* or in *Who's Who in America*. In this case, it is not a matter of repetition, rather it is one of exclusion. By the latter term we mean that the people who have been left out are not considered as successful achievers as those whose names are included.

A side-kick of publicity is notoriety. We think of publicity as being on the sincere side. Notoriety, on the other hand, is spectacular and somewhat valueless. Illustrations are: the woman who has one divorce after another, a prominent gambler in New York or Florida, the man who marries several women, the person who tries to swim the English Channel, the individual who swallows goldfish, and the person who sits on a flagpole.

Can we now make parallel cases out of these two lists of success? What is there in one list that compares to something in the other? The tangible awards of success in college are those of high scholastic records. In life they are financial returns. Extracurricular honors are matched by position in an organization. Social position in one correlates in with social position in the other. Publicity in college is comparable with fame, reputation, and publicity in adult life.

Success in College and in Adult Life

What evidence have we that there is any correlation between the measures of success in college and those out in life? All of you, no doubt, realize the difficulty that faces anyone who attempts to discover possible connections between these two factors. We have presented to you a list of some of the measures of success in college and in life. The attempt to correlate an item in one set with one in the other is one that would have to be handed over to Nemo, the robot brain. Even then, such a large number of individuals would have to be a part to the study that the mere clerical work involved in gathering the data to be transmitted to Nemo would be almost insurmountable.

This does not imply that no studies have been made. Certainly there have been such. But they have been piecemeal affairs, viz., what became of the graduates of such-and-such college, how many got into *Who's Who*, what happened to the Phi Betes, what did the athletes make of themselves, what about the B.M.O.C.'s? Even then, the numbers involved and the geographical areas dealt with were not sufficiently all-inclusive for anyone to make any definite statements one way or another. In the first place, we have to agree upon what we mean by "success." The word has such tangible and intangible meanings. In the materialistic and stereotyped sense with which most people regard it, success means either "how much money he earns" or "how high a position he holds in his job." An Amherst study¹⁸ employed seven criteria: internationally known, national prominence, local prominence, average success for a college graduate, mediocre career, relatively unskilled work, failure—not self-supporting, and criminal or shady record. Said Pressey, "Older students are maladjusted to college work and college life, with consequent handicap in adulthood. Late graduation too much reduced the number of most vigorous years in the prime of life, which might have gone into most energetic initiation of life career. It is believed that such findings argue for a judicious acceleration of educational programs, especially for veterans, and argue against peacetime conscription."

¹⁸ S. L. Pressey, "Age of College Graduation and Success in Adult Life," *J. Appl Psychol.*, 30, 226-233 (1946)

The above study of success was based on prominence achieved with respect to the job. Another study of achievement in college and in later life¹⁹ defined success in a similar manner. It dealt with the "relative degree of achievement in the field in which the individual was engaged," by the 1896-1916 graduates of Wesleyan University. The high scholarship group was most successful; the high extracurricular activity group next; with the low scholarship and low extracurricular activity groups about equal, with a slight margin in favor of the low scholarship group. "The figures presented are definite evidence that the groups of Wesleyan alumni, as selected for the purposes of this study, do tend to succeed in their chosen vocations according as they have succeeded in college, whether in scholarship or extracurricular activities."

A study of success as measured by salary was that made by the Bell Telephone System. The criterion of success was "present salary, related to the number of years since graduation and weighted to eliminate geographical variations." The conclusions, as stated by the report, were that "the results . . . indicate that high scholarship, substantial campus achievement, early graduation and immediate employment in the Bell System are significantly favorable factors for success in its work. . . . Scholarship seems to be the most significant single index of success. The combination of favorable factors such as high scholarship and substantial campus achievement increases the likelihood of success but by no means assures it in all cases. It is clear that each man's interest in his work, the satisfaction of his basic motives . . . and his ability to adjust himself to his environment are almost as important elements in success. Proper self-analysis and guidance in the choice of a vocation are essential to it."²⁰

Jepson²¹ claims that success in college (which he fails to define) is due to: "(1) memory, (2) desire to get good grades, (3) ability to read well, (4) possession of an open mind, (5) willingness to accept, (6) mere inertia, and (7) persistence; whereas success in

¹⁹ T. A. Langlie and Eldredge Ashton, "Achievement in College and in Later Life," *Personnel Journal*, 9, 450-454 (1931).

²⁰ Donald S. Bridgman, "Success in College and Business," *Personnel Journal*, 9, 1-19 (1930).

²¹ Victor Jepson, "Scholastic Proficiency and Vocational Success," *Educ. and Psychol. Measurement*, 2, 623-624 (1951).

earning a living is due to: (1) drive, (2) desire, (3) shrewdness, (4) ruthlessness, and (5) showmanship." There is a seeming parallel between numbers 2, 5, and 7 of the first set and numbers 1 and 2 of the second, although anyone who has had intimate dealings with undergraduates is aware of the presence among them of the last three of the second set. Many students "get by" on shrewdness and display of showmanship, while some are even ruthless in their efforts to achieve campus honors.

There is no wide difference between the results of the several studies that attempt to show relationships between "success" in college and that in adult life. At times, the conclusions are slightly negative.²² But, when all is said and done, when the last verse of the song has been sung, the consensus is that a combination of good scholarship and active participation in extracurricular campus life is as good an indication as any of success either in salary earned or position achieved.

Terman²³ puts his finger very deftly on the situation when he says: "The most important factors suggested by my data are two: a difference in the desire to achieve, and a difference in what is commonly called emotional stability or personality adjustment. Contrary to the Lange-Eichbaum theory that great achievement is usually associated with emotional tensions which border on the abnormal, in my gifted group success is associated with stability, with absence rather than presence of disturbing conflicts—in short with happiness of temperament and freedom from excessive frustration."

This discussion on success would be incomplete if it did not end with a statement that appeared in a box on the editorial page of *Collier's* several years ago. In announcing the death of a dear friend of his, the editor said that this friend had lived in this one community all his life, that he had never traveled to amount to anything, that he had never done anything spectacular to attract attention, but that, when he died, the whole town mourned the passing of a friend. This man, said the editor, was the most successful man he had been privileged to know.

²² R. E. Thornhill and Carney Landis, "Extra-Curricular Activity and Success," *School and Society*, July 28, 1925.

²³ Louis M. Terman, "The Vocational Successes of Intellectually Gifted Individuals," *Occupations*, 20, 433-498 (1942).

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. Talk with your college friends and make a list of their reasons for going to college. How do their reasons compare with or differ from those presented in this chapter?
2. Think of the teachers you have had. Have the methods used by your various teachers served to liberalize education? List the methods that you feel did tend to liberalize education.
3. Do you believe that the required courses in your college contribute to your acquiring a general education? In what way do they contribute or inhibit?
4. What criteria does the college or university you are attending use in determining who may enter the school?
5. What provisions are made to help those students that need financial aid to attend college?
6. Are high schools making any effort to determine who should go to college? If so, in what ways?
7. Looking back, decide how your high school could have helped you to meet the problems of college. In what ways were you helped by your high school?
8. How did the college succeed or fail in making the transition from high school to college as easy as possible for you?
9. List the qualities that you feel are valuable in achieving success in college.
10. List the qualities that you feel are valuable in achieving success in the economic world. Are the qualities that promote success in college the same as those that promote success in the economic world?
11. Describe someone you know who has not been to college and yet whom you consider to be liberally educated.

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The Objectives of Secondary Education

THE refrain of an old-time song, "I don't know where I'm going, but I'm onna my way" reflects the attitude of those who live a hand-to-mouth existence. "Wine, women, and song" is another way of stating the philosophy of ephemeral transitoriness. "Eat, drink, and be merry, for tomorrow we die" is the excuse for a type of behavior that really does not care what happens one way or another. The opposite admonition occurs in that bit of age-old advice, "Go to the ant, thou sluggard, consider her ways and be wise."

All these epigrams or aphorisms are evidence that man has long been giving thought to the whys and wherefores of his sojourn on earth. At first, when his wants were purely physical, his main task was to make it possible for him to stay alive. His thoughts, such as they were, were concerned with ways and means to keep himself fed, to protect himself from the elements by means of shelter and clothing, to ward off the attacks of beasts and human enemies, and to procure a mate. But, as time went on and man became more and more domesticated, to the point where all his efforts were no longer directed toward mere self-preservation, he had the time or leisure to begin to wonder about himself. He began to try to explain some of the physical and social phenomena of his environment. What was the thunder? Why did the lightning strike and destroy? What were these dreams that crept into the unconscious sleep of night? Why did men die? What became of them when they did die? Why, even, was a man perfectly well one day and laid low with some strange malady the next?

Such questions, and more, began to trouble his awakening mind. The causes he sought and thought he found were in terms of his own experiences. Since his experiences were limited, his explanations of his experiences were likewise limited. All he could imagine was that there were some outside agencies, benign and malign, who were responsible for the good or ill that befell him. Then he began to devise rites, incantations, and ceremonies that would placate the evil demons and curry favor with the good ones. When he compared notes with other men who were trying to find answers to the same problems, he discovered that certain rituals carried on by them seemed to effect the same results. That is what happened in the majority of the cases. If, for some reason, the expected result did not eventuate, the cause for the failure was in the ritual.

Thus we have the beginnings of religion, science, and philosophy. It is easy to lump all these together and call them by one name, superstition. The word superstition has attached to itself a somewhat undesirable connotation, but, after all, what is superstition but a common-sense, everyday, method to explain the universe? The difference between superstition and science is that the former judges results as they seem to appear, overlooking or ignoring any exceptions that might have arisen, whereas science accepts results only when based on reproducible experimental evidence. In many cases the conclusions are the same. But when one's own experience is his only source of evidence, for him the results are just as binding as they are for the true scientist. And he acts accordingly.

And so, out of the mass of superstition that shapes the rites and mores of a group, there emerges a set of beliefs that form the basis for individual and corporate action. These beliefs become the guiding principles of all informal and formal education imposed by the elders of the group upon themselves and upon their children. As times change and a new order arises, the objectives or goals of education and life tend to follow suit, although there will be a certain amount of lag between the new order and reformulation of the goals. Such a lag is an expected concomitant of any social institution, be it church or school. Sometimes these goals are not expressly stated in just so many words, but their essence is incorporated in the folkways of the group.

In our discussion of the backgrounds of education, the early sec-

ondary schools in our own country, and the secondary systems abroad, one of the chief items of interest was the variety in aims of education characterizing the different groups. Although the common element among all was preparation for citizenship, it was citizenship itself that differed in interpretation. Among primitive groups it was the life of the warrior, among the Greeks, the mentally well-balanced and physically poised leader of the state, among the Romans the orator-knight, in medieval times, the knight and the priest, in English schools, the gentlemen, in France, the scholar, in Germany, the patriot, and in Russia, the communist.

Each phase of society has had in mind the adage, "Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it." Where disagreement has entered has been in the interpretation of what is meant by "in the way he should go." Ever since the time that man discovered how to express his thoughts in permanently recorded form we find opinions relative to what is the good life, and suggestions for attaining it. The names of many famous men are attached to the wording of such life formulas: Plato, Jesus, Confucius, Buddha, Jerome, Mohammed, Comenius, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Rousseau, etc.

The Objectives of Herbert Spencer

We shall not take the time to present the educational philosophy and theories of all those whose names are listed. For our purpose, and for our understanding of today's secondary school we shall trace our steps back only three-quarters of a century to an Englishman who has exerted a profound influence on our own type of secondary education and those who have directed it. Herbert Spencer, as an ardent disciple of Darwin and Huxley, became especially interested in the place that science should have in the education of British youth. He was equally interested in the field of sociology. In fact, his own curiosity in the physical and social world was almost insatiable. He wanted to know the reasons for everything and he wanted other people to share both his enthusiasm and his great store of information. He also realized that the secondary schools of Great Britain were paying scant, if any, attention to science or sociology. A curriculum crammed with language study was all that was offered. And the underlying principle was that of formal or mental

discipline, the same educational philosophy that determined the pronouncements of our own Committee of Ten.

Spencer was so critical of the secondary education of his day that he wrote and published in the *Westminster Review*, the *North British Review*, and the *British Quarterly Review* of 1861 a series of four essays on the subject of education. One of the most famous of these was the one entitled *What Knowledge is of Most Worth*. In this essay Spencer laid the foundation for much that was to influence the thinking and proposals of every group that met to debate and discuss the problems of secondary education.

How to live?—that is the essential question for us. Not how to live in the mere material sense only, but in the widest sense. The general problem which comprehends every special problem is—the right ruling of conduct in all directions and under all circumstances. In what way to treat the body; in what way to treat the mind; in what way to manage our affairs; in what way to bring up a family; in what way to behave as a citizen; in what way to utilize all those sources of happiness which nature supplies—how to use all our faculties to the greatest advantage of ourselves and others—how to live completely? And this being the great thing needful for us to learn, is, by consequence, the great thing which education has to teach. . . .

Our first step must obviously be to classify, in the order of their importance, the leading kinds of activity which constitute human life. They may be naturally arranged into:—

1. Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation;
2. Those activities which, by securing the necessities of life, indirectly minister to self-preservation;
3. Those activities which have for their end the rearing and disciplining of offspring;
4. Those activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations;
5. Those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings.

That these stand in something like their true order of subordination, it needs no long consideration to show. The actions and precautions, by which, from moment to moment, we secure personal safety, must clearly take precedence of all others. Could there be a man, ignorant as an infant of all surrounding objects and movements, or how to guide himself among them, he would pretty certainly lose his life the first time he went into the

street; notwithstanding any amount of learning he might have on other matters. And as entire ignorance in all other directions would be less promptly fatal than entire ignorance in this direction, it must be admitted that knowledge immediately conducive to self-preservation is of primary importance.

That next after direct self-preservation comes the indirect self-preservation which consists in acquiring the means of living, none will question. That a man's industrial functions must be considered before his parental ones, is manifest from the fact that, speaking generally, the discharge of the parental functions is made possible only by the previous discharge of the industrial ones. The power of self-maintenance necessarily preceding the power of maintaining offspring, it follows that knowledge needful for self-maintenance has stronger claims than knowledge needful for family welfare—is second in value to none save knowledge needful for immediate self-preservation.

As the family comes before the State in order of time—as the bringing up of children is possible before the State exists, or when it has ceased to be, *whereas the State is rendered possible only by the upbringing of children*; it follows that the duties of the parent demand closer attention than those of the citizen. Or, to use a further argument—since the good of a society ultimately depends upon the nature of its citizens; and since the nature of its citizens is more modifiable by early training than by anything else; we must conclude that the welfare of the family underlies the welfare of society. And hence knowledge directly conducive to the first, must take precedence of knowledge directly conducive to the last.

Those various forms of pleasurable occupation which fill up the leisure left by graver occupations—the enjoyment of music, poetry, painting, etc.—manifestly imply a pre-existing society. Not only is a considerable development of them impossible without a long-established social union; but their very subject-matter consists in great part of social sentiments and sympathies. *Not only does society supply the conditions to their growth; but also the ideas and sentiments they express.* And, consequently, that part of human conduct which constitutes good citizenship is of more moment than that which goes out in accomplishments or exercise of the tastes; and, in education, preparation for the one must rank before preparation for the other.¹

Spencer then proceeded to discuss each of his 5 objectives in greater detail. Then he summed up all his arguments for educational reform in the following statements:

¹ Herbert Spencer, *Education*, D. Appleton & Company, Inc., New York, 1860, pp. 11-16.

Thus the question to which we set out—What knowledge is of most worth?—the uniform reply is—Science. This is the verdict on all counts. For direct self-preservation, or the maintenance of life and health, the all-important knowledge is—Science. For that indirect self-preservation which we call gaining a livelihood, the knowledge of greatest value is—Science. For the due discharge of parental functions, the proper guidance is to be found only in—Science. For that interpretation of national life, past and present, without which the citizen cannot rightly regulate his conduct, the indispensable key is—Science. Alike for the most perfect production and highest enjoyment of art in all its forms, the needful preparation is still—Science. And for purposes of discipline—intellectual, moral, religious,—the most efficient study is, once more—Science.

No one has written with such assurance and positiveness in behalf of any educational panacea. But Spencer felt that, to get his idea across, he had to hammer it into the minds of his British and American readers, minds that were obsessed with a firm belief in the mind and training efficacy of the classics. And so, in addition to claiming everything for the content of science, Spencer also asseverated its power to train the mind equally as well as the classics.

The Theory of Formal Discipline

This theory of mental or formal discipline, which formed the warp and woof of all educational philosophy until the twentieth century, was the simplest and most satisfying theory under which our schools have operated. Based on the old theory of faculty psychology, that the training or exercise of one mental function was transferred automatically to another, it assumed that the more difficult the subject that was studied the more effective it was as a means of disciplining the mind. Consequently, an important corollary was that the reason for a pupil's failure was his unwillingness to learn or to apply himself to learning rather than to any innate incapacity. For that reason teachers could, with the utmost equanimity, flunk pupils right and left. These teachers knew nothing of the theory of individual differences, because such a theory had not been propounded until the turn of the last century. Theirs was a one-track mind when it came to judging the results of their teaching. Depending upon drill and memoriter methods of learning, similar in kind to the calisthenic exercises of the gymnasium, they failed a

boy because he wouldn't learn, not because he couldn't. Furthermore, their consciences were salved by the thought that the boy who flunked would be able to get a job, anyway, and so would not be a burden on society. Compulsory age school laws did not stand in their way. Even in 1891 the average upper age limit for compulsory attendance was only 14.5 years.²

There are still large numbers of teachers, especially on the college level, who believe in the doctrine of mental or formal discipline. When asked by their students the reasons for taking the subjects in a liberal arts course, their answer all too often is that these subjects will train the mind. What they do not know or realize is that the study of individual differences carried on by Thorndike and others has proved that it was the superior ability of pupils that enabled them to master such difficult subjects as Latin and algebra, and that it was *not* the study of these subjects that effected the superior ability of these same pupils. As William James has said, "No amount of culture would seem capable of modifying a man's general retentiveness."³ The tenet of the adherents to the doctrine of formal discipline may be stated as a belief that the study of Latin will remove the pimples from one's face, put on a white collar, crease the trousers, and shine the shoes. In other words, it will give one the appearance of being a gentleman and a man of the world.

Transfer of Training

It is the ability, then, of the individual himself that determines to a large extent how well he does in the pursuit of knowledge and information and the use that he makes of them. So it is easy to see why some succeed and others fail. The men who have done much to bring to us an understanding of the place that varying abilities play in the learning process are E. L. Thorndike and C. H. Judd. According to Thorndike, transfer of improved efficiency, or transfer, as it will be called in this discussion, takes place when there are identical elements present in two or more situations. "If a person studies or practices subject matter A, a specific improvement in A

² *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1941, p. 355.

³ William James, *Talks to Teachers on Psychology and to Students on Life's Ideals*, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1900.

is expected. This is called *learning*. Beyond this specific improvement there is usually a spread of the effect of study or practice which enables the person to learn B, C, or D more easily than would otherwise have been the case. This spread is called *transfer of training*, which is based on the theory that regards learning as not wholly specific in character and emphasizes the tendency for learning in one field to spill over and affect other fields."⁴

Thorndike's theory of common or identical elements with respect to content and method assumes a certain amount of automatic transfer, i.e., the transfer takes place because of the presence of the common elements. As such, it borders too closely on the doctrine of formal discipline, in which automatic, or unconscious, transfer was the *deus ex machina*. Judd's theory of the generalizing mind seems much nearer the real explanation. According to him the mind must be aware, consciously aware, of the similarities that exist between the new experience and old experiences. So, unless the mind does see and establish these connections, no transfer or carry-over takes place. Then, too, the ease with which transfer takes place and the amount that occurs depend upon the two factors of heredity and environment. If the individual has been fortunate in being born with superior mental ability and has had a wealth of valuable experiences, learning for him will be a joy and pleasure. If, on the other hand, he has been so unfortunate as to inherit low mental ability and has been decidedly restricted in the type and number of his experiences, ordinary learning, as we think of it, will for him be drudgery and unhappiness.

These, however, are not the only restrictions on learning. An individual may be bright but lack the necessary experiences, or he may be of only average ability and yet have had wonderful experiences. Stacked up against each other, the first one will suffer for a while, but, as soon as he has gained the necessary experiences, he will outstrip the other. In school, then, it is well for the teacher to become acquainted with the intellectual abilities and environmental background of his pupils, so that he may know what to expect from them.

But the theory of transfer postulates something much more important, even, than a knowledge of the pupil. Since transfer takes

⁴ *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1306.

place when the mind recognizes the similarities between old and new situations, it becomes the bounden duty of the teacher to show to pupils when and where these similarities exist. The brightest pupils will, in many instances, see these similarities for themselves, but the majority of them will have to be shown. It is this demonstration of connections that makes teaching one of the most important activities in society. Here is a youngster whom the law compels to go to school until he is 16. Most of the world of knowledge, information, and action is his intellectual heredity and his environmental background. One or both may be superior, average, or inferior. But, no matter what their levels, it is the duty of the school, in those matchless words of Briggs, "to teach pupils to do better the desirable things they will do anyway," and "to reveal higher activities and to make them both desired and maximally possible."⁵ The teacher's task is to present situations that are on the pupils' level and yet analogous to the life activities in which he is engaging and will engage. That is what is meant by showing the connections or similarities between those activities carried on in school and those in which the pupil actually engages and will engage when he is not in school.

It is this effort to bring consciously to the attention of the pupil the relationships that exist between the school situation in the classroom and on the campus that marks the chief distinction between the theory of transfer and the doctrine of formal discipline. The theory of transfer does not assume automatic carry-over. Such learning as does take place occurs because the individual is aware of it or because the teacher causes him to become aware of it.

And so Herbert Spencer erred in his claim, not that science would train the mind as well as did the humanities, but in his fundamental belief in the doctrine of formal discipline. And yet, we can pardon him for his faith, since Galton had not yet published his *Hereditary Genius*,⁶ and Thorndike and James had not yet tried to adduce experimental evidence to disprove the validity of the theory. The debt that we do owe to Spencer is his attack that opened the doors to

⁵ Thomas Briggs, *Improving Instruction*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938, pp. 219, 231.

⁶ Sir Francis Galton, *Hereditary Genius, Its Laws and Consequences*, Macmillan & Company, Ltd., London, 1869.

science instruction and the fivefold analysis that he invented to prove his case. It is easy to see the influence of the implications of the Darwinian theory of evolution and the corresponding development of the scientific aspects of sociology. The individual is of no account to himself or to others unless he can keep himself alive. Food, shelter, and raiment are the prime requisites to existence. But to procure these necessary elements, he must, in our type of society, have a job of some kind. It follows that he must learn a job and to perform the necessary fundamental operations of reading, writing, and reckoning demanded by the society in which he is placed. Then, when he can depend upon his job to provide him with a little more than he needs for his own survival, he takes to himself a wife and raises a family. But he cannot isolate his family from other families like his. For mutual self-protection and advancement the various families must band together "to form a more perfect union." Thus there arise new duties in connection with social and political life. And, last of all, when all the demands for the four major objectives have been met, opportunities will arise for the enjoyment of any leisure of which the individual may wish to take advantage.

To get a more informal picture of these 5 objectives of Spencer they are herewith presented for favorable or unfavorable criticism. Briefly and tersely they may be listed as: me,⁷ my job, my family, my country, and my leisure.

The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education

Nothing of moment occurred to introduce any new approaches to the nature of objectives for secondary education until the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, appointed by the National Education Association in 1913, published its famous bulletin, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*.⁸ In this important monograph the thesis was proposed that subject matter in the secondary school should be taught, not as an end in itself, but as a means to an end. "Subject values and teaching methods must

⁷ In this connection the word "me" is much to be preferred to the stilted "I."

⁸ Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, Bull. 35, Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C., 1918, pp. 11-16.

be tested in terms of the laws of learning and the application of knowledge to the activities of life, rather than primarily in terms of the demands of any subject as a logically organized science."

To make known what this end might be, the Commission listed its now famous objectives:

1. Health
2. Command of fundamental processes
3. Worthy home membership
4. Vocation
5. Civic education
6. Worthy use of leisure
7. Ethical character

The Commission proposed that each course taught in the secondary school should be analyzed with respect to its possible contribution to any one or all of these 7 objectives. Their plea fell, more or less, on deaf ears. The subject-matter specialists were too much in the ascendancy. Nevertheless, there were those who were impressed with this new venture. They even tried to put into practice some of the Commission suggestions. One such group was the High School Central Committee appointed in 1928 by Roy P. Wisheart, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Indiana. In its guiding principles and objectives in curriculum construction for secondary education the committee stated: "The committee reaffirms the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* as its base of departure for guiding the Subject Matter Committees in reorganizing their courses of study and in determining the curriculum reorganization." Although not every committee was successful in carrying out this injunction, the subcommittee on English tried to do the job. In the unit on discussion for the ninth year, the following specific objectives are given: "To teach methods of organizing clubs and conducting meetings to aid in better citizenship, to develop the ability to present effective argument for school and community life, to arouse interest in the practical life of the home and community and in the vocational interests of life, to develop the right attitude toward the pursuit of health, to correlate the work in English with that of other fields and to give command of the fundamental processes, to develop the proper attitude toward school life and to train

toward better citizenship, to cultivate an interest in art for worthy use of leisure, to encourage courtesy in social relation and to emphasize good citizenship, to teach pupils to discriminate between good and poor motion pictures and to promote the worthy use of leisure, to encourage interest in nature and to aid in worthy home membership and the use of leisure, and to interest the pupil in contributing to table talk in his home and thereby to contribute to worthy use of leisure." Some of these specific objectives may seem repetitious, but each is accompanied by what the pupil is actually expected to do in order to achieve the objective. Whether or not teachers who used the course of study followed the suggestions relative to the objectives, we know not.

At least, we do know that every textbook in secondary education for the last quarter of a century has given lip service to the 7 objectives. The result is that most undergraduates in education courses are acquainted with this one set of objectives, even if they know no other. Consequently, we can say that, like the academy, which kept learning alive in the eighteenth century, the constant repetition of the 7 objectives has kept the idea of the importance of objectives constantly before the educational public.

The Objectives of Inglis

Just about the time that the Commission issued its magnum opus, one of the members of the members of the Commission, Alexander Inglis, of Harvard University, brought forth his *Principles of Secondary Education*,* a book destined to play a very important role in secondary teacher education. Inglis had three fundamental aims of secondary education.

Three important groups of activities require the participation of the individual and establish three fundamental aims for secondary education, as for all education, in America. Those three groups of activities are distinguished accordingly as they involve primarily; (1) participation in the duties of citizenship and in the not-directly economic relations of co-operative group life; (2) participation in the production and distribution of economic utilities; (3) the life of the individual as a relatively free and

* Alexander J. Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1918, pp. 367-368.

independent personality. Thus the three fundamental aims of secondary education are:

1. The preparation of the individual as a prospective citizen and co-operating member of society—the Social-Civic Aim.
2. The preparation of the individual as a prospective worker and producer—the Economic-Vocational Aim;
3. The preparation of the individual for those activities which, while primarily involving individual action, the utilization of leisure, and the development of the personality, are of great importance to society—the Individualistic-Vocational Aim.

It must be recognized that these three aims are not mutually exclusive, but rather that they are in a high degree interrelated and interdependent. Taken together they constitute the social aim of secondary education in the broadest sense of the term. Every individual as a social unit is at the same time a citizen, a worker, and a relatively independent personality. The three phases of his life cannot be divorced and in the secondary school preparation for no one of those phases should be neglected.

The Objectives of Franklin Bobbitt

Franklin Bobbitt, of the University of Chicago, conducted a survey among the teachers of the Los Angeles, California, schools to determine what were the activities in which people normally engage. These teachers and, subsequently, his own students made a list of over 2000 seemingly desirable activities that were performed by normal men and women. These many activities were studied, analyzed, synthesized, and classified; that is, all activities that seemed to belong to a general type of activity were assembled under the same heading. Bobbitt ended with ten, which are:¹⁰

1. Language activities; social intercommunication
2. Health activities
3. Citizenship activities
4. General social activities—meeting and mingling with others
5. Spare-time activities, amusements, recreations
6. Keeping one's self mentally fit—analagous to the health activities of keeping oneself physically fit
7. Religious activities
8. Parental activities, the upbringing of children, the maintenance of a proper home life.

¹⁰ Franklin Bobbitt, *How to Make a Curriculum*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, pp. 8-9, 30.

9. Unspecialized or nonvocational practical activities
10. The labors of one's calling

So far as valid, leaving aside the vocational, the foregoing are the objectives of general education in schools of all levels: pre-primary, primary, elementary, junior high, senior high school, and junior college. All of these schools are training for the same adult life. All are aiming at the same ultimate goals. Some are nearer the beginnings of man's educational journey, some are nearer its consummation. All the parts, however, make up one journey. It should be direct, consistent, straight, unconfused.

During and following the second decade of the twentieth century, statements on objectives of education on all levels began to come thick and fast from individuals and organized groups. It seems that, whenever a committee was appointed to consider the problems of education, the first thing it did was to issue a set of objectives. If the different sets did differ with each other, this was due more to a special emphasis that defined the work of the committee and to a modified vocabulary rather than to any real distinction in the objectives themselves. It is possible to take each separate set and relate any and all of the stated objectives to the 5 that were promulgated by Spencer. Some of them bear the name of the committee or organization that gave them birth, but there have been no concerted efforts to implement them in any effective way. For the sake of giving a picture of the situation, the objectives of various groups and the dates will be presented.

*The ten socioeconomic goals of the National Education Association*¹¹

1. Hereditary strength
2. Physical security
3. Participation in an evolving culture
4. An active, flexible personality
5. Suitable occupation
6. Economic security
7. Mental security
8. Equality of opportunity
9. Freedom
10. Fair play

¹¹ *The High School Curriculum*, Sixth Yearbook, Dept. of Superintendence, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1928, p. 51.

*The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools*¹²

ULTIMATE OBJECTIVES

1. **Health:** To secure and maintain a condition of personal good health and physical fitness
2. **Leisure Time:** To use leisure in right ways
3. **Social:** To sustain successfully certain definite social relationships: civic, domestic, community, and the like
4. **Vocational:** To engage successfully in exploratory-vocational and vocational activities

IMMEDIATE OBJECTIVES

1. **Acquiring Fruitful Knowledge:**
 - A. Preparatory to other knowledge
 - B. Knowledge that functions directly
 - C. Knowledge useful in controlling everyday life situations
2. **Developing Interests, Motives, Ideals, Attitudes, Appreciations**
3. **Developing Mental Techniques**
4. **Acquiring Right Habits and Useful Skills**

*Educational Policies Commission*¹³

1. **The Objectives of Self-Realization**—The Inquiring Mind, Speech, Reading, Writing, Number, Sight and Hearing, Health Knowledge, Health Habits, Public Health, Recreation, Intellectual Interests, Esthetic Interests, Character.
2. **The Objectives of Human Relationship**—Respect for Humanity, Friendships, Cooperation, Courtesy, Appreciation of the Home, Conservation of the Home, Homemaking, Democracy in the Home.
3. **The Objectives of Economic Efficiency**—Satisfaction in Good Workmanship, Occupational Choice, Occupational Efficiency, Occupational Adjustment, Occupational Appreciation, Personal Economics, Consumer Judgment, Efficiency in Buying, Consumer Protection.
4. **The Objectives of Civic Responsibility**—Social Justice, Social Activity, Social Understanding, Critical Judgment, Tolerance, Conservation, Social Applications of Science, World Citizenship, Law Observance, Economic Literacy, Political Citizenship, Devotion to Democracy.

¹² North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *High School Curriculum Reorganization*, Ann Arbor Press, Ann Arbor, Mich., 1933, pp. 26-27.

¹³ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1938, pp. 39-50.

*The American Youth Commission*¹⁴

1. Education for Citizenship
2. Education for Home Membership
3. Education for Leisure Life
4. Vocational Efficiency
5. Physical and Mental Health
6. Preparation for Continued Learning

*Imperative Educational Needs of Youth*¹⁵

1. All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.
2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.
3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.
4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.
5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.
6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.
7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.
8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.
9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others.
10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding,

*Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards*¹⁶

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF YOUTH

1. To learn to live with other human beings
2. To achieve and maintain sound mental and physical health
3. To learn to live in their natural and scientific environment
4. Sound guidance
5. To learn to think logically and to express themselves clearly
6. To prepare for work, for future education, or for both
7. To learn to use their leisure well
8. To learn to live aesthetically

SUMMARY

Careful examination of each of these well-considered and well-developed sets of objectives will reveal a certain amount of original-

TABLE 23. Interrelationships of Educational Objectives

Spencer	Commission on the Reorganiza- tion of Secondary Education	Inglis	Bobbitt	Franzén
Direct self- preservation	Health	Individualistic- avocational	Health	Health
Indirect self- preservation	Command of fundamental processes Vocation	Economic- vocational	Language intercom- munication Labors of one's calling	Economic efficiency
Rearing and disciplining of offspring	Home mem- bership	Social-civic	Parental	Social living
Proper social and political relations	Civic educa- tion Ethical char- acter	Social-civic	Citizenship General social Religious	Social living
Leisure part of life	Leisure	Individualistic- avocational	Spare-time Unspecialized practical activities	Leisure

¹⁶ *Evaluative Criteria*, Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, Washington, D.C., 1950, pp. 37-44.

ity and individuality. Fundamentally, however, they are, as has been previously stated, an elaboration or contraction of the century-old pronouncements of Herbert Spencer. To demonstrate these interrelationships, the objectives of Spencer, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, Inglis, Bobbitt, and Franzén's adaptation of the North Central Association are presented in tabulated form, with the objectives of Spencer as the frame of reference.

Life Adjustment and the Four Major Objectives of Secondary Education¹

SO MUCH criticism is being directed against the work of the secondary school in that it fails to adjust every youth for life, that some effort must be made to find out the reasons for the criticism and then to suggest possible remedies. The most oft-quoted attack is that the school has become so subject centered that it thinks in terms of the special subjects and the teachers who teach them rather than in terms of the boys and girls who are the subjects of instruction. It is futile to deny the truth of this assertion.

In our teacher education institutions, teachers are prepared to teach in narrow fields of specialization. College and university instructors are, themselves, the products of intense specialization on the graduate level. Having had little or no guidance in the methods of college teaching, they think that they demean themselves if they attempt to give their students a broad view of their subject area. And so, as a result, we have a teacher of Pope, one of Dryden, another of Johnson, *et ad infinitum*, instead of a teacher of literature. We have a teacher of biological chemistry, physical chemistry, or theoretical chemistry, instead of a teacher of chemistry, or of science, even.

In the field of research, such subdivisions of a field of knowledge may be necessary for the expert and the specialist. But who will make such a claim for the millions of boys and girls whom we find in

¹ This chapter is reprinted from *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Washington, D.C., October, 1951, pp. 90-111.

our secondary schools? They are not going to be specialists in any areas except those of living and earning a living. Only a small percentage will continue into college or university. And there are many who wonder if, for those who do go, there may not be too much specialization on this level. And so, teachers, who are prepared for the profession of teaching, come under the influence of the specialists who know little or nothing of the youngsters who fill the halls and classrooms of our secondary schools. It is only natural, then, to expect no more of these teachers than that they carry on as they have been led. We have here an apt illustration of "the blind leading the blind."

The secondary teacher can be excused for some of his ignorance concerning the place of subject matter in the lives of his students. "Like master, like pupil." It is, therefore, not surprising that he tends to teach his subject as an end in itself. He measures his students by their retention and regurgitation of the facts that he has made them memorize. He makes them feel that the holy gospel of world history, chemistry, algebra, or what not, is found only between the covers of a certain textbook. Strangely enough, his mind doesn't go beyond the facts he teaches to the impingement of these facts upon the everyday actions of his students. He is satisfied if they know; he is sometimes unhappy if they don't know. But the effect? That is something with which he has no time to bother.

And that is where he is wrong. He has assumed that it is none of his business as to what effect his teachings may have. If there is any effect, it is up to the student as to what that effect is to be. Here is where the teacher all too often falls back upon the theory of formal discipline for protection. His hammering in of facts, facts, and more facts is his excuse for "training the mind." He doesn't realize that the bright student probably can put these facts to use in spite of the teacher, and that the poor student is lost in a bewildering maze of a verbal potpourri. The bright student can see some relationship between the facts learned in the classroom and the activities or meanings of his everyday life; the not-so-bright student does not see them. The chances are also good that even the average student is blind to any relationships. Why? Because the teacher has assumed that any such transfer is automatic. Consequently, he has not bestirred himself to point out the relationships all the information

he has been conveying and demanding bears to actual living. No wonder! He doesn't know them himself, or he has never had them pointed out to him.

It is the evidence that boys and girls are subjected to the learning process of acquiring factual information which they seem unable to apply to any ordinary experiences that causes so many to find fault with what is being taught in our schools. The remedy proposed by some of these critics is drastic. They would heave everything that resembles subject matter as such out the window and substitute an activity program that imitates the life activities of youth and adults. Such a program has greater chances of success on the elementary level than on the secondary. Even so, the experiences of the past few years have shown that an entirely integrated activity program leaves some important elements of learning too much to the vicissitudes of chance.

The approach to be followed in this discussion tries to avoid the two extremes of subject matter emphasis and complete integration by combining the good elements of each. We must face the fact that we do live in a subject-centered world. No matter in what activity we engage, we refer to its components as grammar, chemistry, mathematics, geography, political science, etc., etc. All the work of the world, philosophical, academic, technical, scientific, is carried on via the instruments of the many subject fields. To discount the importance and place of subject fields in this day and age is as silly as to say that the moon is made of green cheese.

How, then, can we preserve subject fields as an important part of our educational offerings and, at the same time, have them contribute to a better understanding and utilization of life? The answer is one that was embodied in the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*. In this important monograph, the attempt was made to organize the content and teaching materials of the different subject fields so that each one might contribute to the 7 objectives. That was 30 years ago. Sporadic attempts have been made ever since that time to carry out the suggestions that were offered. Aubrey Douglass tried to fashion his two books² on secondary education on the 7

² A. A. Douglass, *Secondary Education*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1927; also *Modern Secondary Education*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1938.

objectives, but he did not give specific illustrations of the ways in which teachers at all areas might strive for the objectives.

The theory is this. Let us retain the major subject areas in our curriculum, but let us teach them, not as ends in themselves, but as contributions to achieving better living. If we can agree upon what we mean by better living, we may be stepping out upon the highway to a vastly improved type of content. The idea is to teach for the objectives of education and to use subject matter as the means to achieve the objectives.

The Four Objectives

That set of objectives that seems to lend itself satisfactorily to our present discussion is my adaptation of those presented by the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.³ These objectives are listed as ultimate, those that are the chief goals in life, and immediate, those that we must employ right now, today, in order to achieve the ultimate objectives. These objectives are 4; but, under each there are 2 or 3 subdivisions.

<i>Health</i>	<i>Leisure</i>	<i>Social Living</i>	<i>Economic Efficiency</i>
Physical	Spare-time	Family	Consumer Education
Mental	Aesthetic	Community	Guidance
		State	Possible
			preparation for a job

All life can be conceived to be composed of these 4 major objectives and their component parts. These are the 4 desirable things that all people will do, irrespective of the individual paths that each individual may pursue. Every one of us must learn how to take the best care of his own health, physical as well as mental. We must learn all that we can about preventive measures so that a sound mind in a sound body may be ours. We must learn how to spend our spare time profitably to ourselves as well as to others, and we must be able to enjoy as much of the beauty of this world as it is possible for us to experience. We must learn how to carry on a

³ North Central Association of College and Secondary Schools, *High School Curriculum Reorganization*, Ann Arbor Press, Ann Arbor, Mich., 1933, pp. 26-28.

happy home life, how to live agreeably in a community that may embrace even the whole world, and how to conduct ourselves as responsible citizens of a political unit. We must have guidance in all that pertains to the development of our own individualities, we must prepare ourselves to earn a living, and we must learn how to spend our money wisely. Such are the 4 objectives, or goals, of all living that are concerned with education for life adjustment.

The immediate objectives are also 4.

1. Basic and selected information
2. Creation of desirable emotional reactions, attitudes, feelings, and appreciations
3. Creation of desirable mental techniques of reasoning, judgment, and imagination
4. Creation of desirable habits and skills

Basic and Selected Information

It is in the area of basic and selected information that the key to the whole problem of objectives lies. Without information, facts, or data, whatever you wish to call it, all is void. There just is no foundation upon which to build. Every utterance, every statement, whether founded on truth and reality or not, becomes a segment of basic and selected information. It may be an egregious lie, but the learner, if he has no way to check on its verity, accepts it as the truth. Such is the situation that, we are told by authorities whom we wish to believe, exists in the Soviet Union today. Descriptions of the same incident are written up and interpreted in an entirely different manner in *Pravda* and in the newspapers in the western zone of Germany. But whereas those who read the latter also have access to the former, the readers of *Pravda* are actually prevented from reading anything that has been produced outside the Iron Curtain. And so, since they don't know that there may be another side to the story, they sincerely believe that what they are told can be nothing but the truth. But this is the point. The information that the Politburo furnishes the Russian people has been selected for a definite purpose, that of getting them to dislike anything and everything that smacks of anticommunism. And the Politburo has the power to dictate the nature of the information to which the Russian people have access. They can, therefore, "quote the Scripture to suit their purposes."

There is, however, nothing particularly unusual about this situation. It is not an isolated case. Example after example can be cited to show that basic and selected information is the foundation upon which all theories are built, all faith is based, and all actions are taken. The nebular hypothesis and the cloud-dust theory of the origin of the planets are different because they start with different assumptions. These assumptions are selected information. The Methodists and the Baptists base their fundamental beliefs on the same Bible, but each denomination selects and emphasizes those particular sections necessary to substantiate its individual interpretations, or vice versa. The opponents of the Taft-Hartley law were careful to choose only those items that would serve their charges of "slave labor," while those who favored the law selected for public approval those sections that seemed fair and just to them.

The point we are trying to make is that, given a certain body of facts or data, an individual, or a group, will seldom take unto itself, lock, stock, and barrel, *all* the facts or data. It is the rare person who does that. What happens is that a selection is made, so that there ensue as many versions as there are selections. The selection is determined by various factors. Sometimes it is bias. The individual refuses to recognize or accept a certain datum because it would spoil his argument. Sometimes it is ignorance. The individual just doesn't see where a particular datum is applicable, because he doesn't know enough to recognize its importance. Sometimes it is expert judgment. In this case, the individual knows that certain data are quite irrelevant, and can therefore be disregarded.

Let us see, now, how this objective of basic and selected information is related to what we teach. Suppose we examine several textbooks in geometry. We notice that they are not alike in all respects. And why are they not all alike? Because the authors have had different opinions as to what theorems should be included for proof and which ones relegated to corollaries or exercises, what phases of geometry should receive more emphasis than others, what types of applications should be made, and what and how much illustrative material should be included. The result? A somewhat different kind of geometric knowledge on the part of the students of each variety of textbook.

Let us now turn our attention to textbooks in literature. Are there

any two on the same grade level that contain exactly the same selections? Hardly, inasmuch as one of them boasts that it presents to the reader selections to be found in no other book. And yet, honorable men and women have been responsible for selecting what goes into any one of these collections. But not only is there disagreement as to the reading selections that are to be included in books on any particular grade level, it is possible to find the same selection placed in books of different grade levels. What is selected in one book for one grade level is considered appropriate for earlier or later grade levels in other books.

The question of selection becomes, then, an important factor in the content to which a student is subjected. By choosing something that emphasizes a certain point of view and by rejecting that which touches upon a different one, we can do much toward achieving the second of our immediate objectives.

Desirable Emotional Reactions, Attitudes, Interests, and Appreciations

We can never get anywhere without information, because information is the basis upon which all our actions depend. Why are we willing to fight for our country, when it is in danger? Because we have had patriotism built into us by our studies and lessons in American history. Everything we have read, everything we have heard has served to create within us a love for the Stars and Stripes and the country they symbolize. When the national anthem is played, we have a feeling of being one with all the others to whom it means the same thing. But, do we, as Americans, react similarly toward the *Marseillaise*, *God Save the King*, or *Deutschland über Alles*? Of course we don't. And why don't we? Because we have not been taught to respond to them in the same way that we have been toward *The Star Spangled Banner*. Only the English can respond to *God Save the King*, only the French toward the *Marseillaise*, and only the Germans to *Deutschland über Alles* in a thoroughly emotional, patriotic manner, because that has been how they have been taught to respond from birth. That is what selected and basic information does for one. It colors and shapes his attitudes and his feelings.

That is the reason a Hoosier feels the way he does about his own

state; similarly the Hawkeye, the Badger, the Cornhusker. That is the reason an alumnus feels the way he does about his college. That is the reason an individual adheres to a certain religious faith. That is why many people belong to a certain political party. In each instance, the person, when young, was given certain information that was reiterated so many, many times that it finally became his way of thinking. Of course, there are those who change loyalties, beliefs, and parties, but they do so because of another kind of information that has been weighty and strong enough to overpower the effects of the earlier learnings.

We talk so much about teaching people to think. Fundamentally, that is not what the home, society, and the schools succeed in doing. What they do is to make people feel a certain way about something. "The intellect is a mere speck afloat upon a sea of feeling," is a statement attributed to Nietzsche or Schopenhauer. The author makes no difference. It is the implication of the statement that is startling. We pride ourselves upon rationalizing our actions, whereas, after all, we act a certain way because of our emotional attitudes. Our reactions to our surroundings are visceral rather than cortical. The word "communist" is an illustration. Instead of rationalizing the social benefits supposedly inherent in ideal communism, whenever the word is mentioned, we see red, and a feeling of revulsion arises within us. In fact, the majority of people have never had it explained to them what communism really stands for. In other words, this type of information has never been revealed to them, so that they are in no position to react intelligently. To react unthinkingly is to react emotionally, and that is what 90 percent of the people do 90 percent of the time. That is why a demagogue is successful. He appeals to the passions, not to the intellect. He is careful in the selection of the information that he spurts out, so that the subtle meanings he wishes to convey find their response in the secretions of the ductless glands, not in the association centers of the cortex. Just consider, for a moment, the emotional reactions aroused in different individuals by these words: bloody, damned, tory, socialist, Hitler, Stalin, Roosevelt, Benedict Arnold, and Gandhi. To an American "bloody" is more or less an adjective that describes a cut, a wound, or an operation. To a Britisher, it is a vile cuss word. To an American Benedict Arnold was a traitor. To the Britisher, he was a

man who gave them valuable information. He, himself, was one person, but he certainly was a different man to the opposing armies.

And so it becomes vastly important in the educative process to select those phases of information that will probably bring about sane and desirable attitudes toward the 4 objectives of education. If we can help to create wholesome attitudes toward life, which is what these objectives amount to, we have accomplished the major share of our mission. Our goal, then, is to select information (activities are considered very definitely one type of information) that will create favorable attitudes to problems of physical health, so that we don't worry much; spare time, so that we like to engage in wholesome fun; aesthetic activities, so that we enjoy the beautiful; family, so that we can improve home conditions; community, so that we may get along better with each other; state, so that we may become better citizens; guidance, so that we may be more willing to receive advice; job preparation, so that we may enjoy our work; and consumer education, so that we may develop a sane attitude toward thrift. Our attitudes toward all these objectives will be built up by the information and experiences we provide. If these attitudes are to be of the desirable type, then the information must also be.

It becomes, then, the duty of all curriculum makers and of the teacher of each subject to see to it that the content emphasizes the 4 objectives and is of such a nature as to create desirable attitudes toward them. The significance is that the subject has no merit in itself. It is merely a means to an end. We do not teach or study American history simply to amass a lot of facts about the development of our country. We become acquainted with the facts so that we may learn how we have gradually conquered certain diseases and what health problems we still have to face, how we have evolved from the simpler forms of entertainment of the horse-and-buggy days to the more elaborate and spectacular ones of today, how the problems of social living have become so acute that the home is being threatened, and how occupations have changed from handwork to the assembly line.

It stands to reason that all subjects do not contribute equally to each of the 4 objectives. For example, mathematics probably contributes more to economic efficiency, literature to leisure, social studies to social living, and biology to health. And yet, mathematics

contributes to the statistics of health, social studies to problems of economics, literature to family life, and biology to the spare-time pursuits of gardening and caring for pets.

If we are to meet the challenge thrown at us by those who oppose the present subject organization of the secondary program of studies, we must pursue some such plan as that which is being suggested, viz., the conscious reorganization of each major area so that the content teaches favorable attitudes to the four major objectives.

Desirable Mental Techniques of Reasoning, Judgment, and Imagination

Although much stress has been placed upon developing proper attitudes, because our visceral reactions are the most potent determiners of our actions, nevertheless there is a place for the intelligence to play a part. It is in this area of mental techniques that any hope for improvement in the *status quo* really lies. Emotional attitudes are the common denominator of humanity. The numerator of a better world lies in the extent to which we can increase cortical reactions. That day must never come, however, when intelligence is the sole determining factor of what we do. If such a thing should ever happen, we will become mere intellectual machines, and the milk of human kindness will have disappeared. No, we must always preserve a proper balance between the emotional and the intellectual, between the heart and the head. The trouble is, however, that at present, there is an imbalance; the emotional far outweighs the intellectual. Our task is to try to give such information to people that they can decide some issues on the basis of reasoning and judgment. Here is an illustration. Millions succumb to the blandishing arguments of the suave radio announcer with respect to the use of certain medicaments or drugs. They are literally hypnotized into buying and administering these products. Too seldom do they stop to rationalize by asking themselves such questions as: What did I learn in my biology (or health) class about the ailment that this drug is advertised to cure? Are the arguments of the announcer scientifically sound, or are they pure hogwash? Do I really need this kind of treatment, or had I better consult my physician?

Such questions as the above show the presence of reasoning and judgment, but how many radio listeners stop to perform such an

to detect shoddiness in goods, how to save money, how to detect unconventional usages, and how to judge a landscape. All of these methods belong to the realm of reasoning and judgment. It is our hope that we can increase the number of the techniques, so that, eventually, all of us can make wiser decisions in matters of health, leisure, social living, and economic efficiency.

Desirable Habits and Skills

The last one of our 4 immediate objectives differs from the preceding in that it is more physical in nature. There must, of course, be some element of intelligence present in the use of an act, even if the act itself seems to be entirely automatic. Handwriting is a skill, and a manual one, to be sure, but, of what good it is, if it is not used to express ideas or thoughts in the mind of the one who is doing the writing? Surely, we have learned to walk, and although most of our walking becomes quite automatic in its direction, yet there are times when we must figure out how fast or how slow our pace should be set in order to get to a certain place at a specified time.

It is not easy to distinguish between habits and skills, because the two words are so often used inseparably. Reading is a skill, and yet each person has acquired certain reading habits, some good, some bad. Writing is a skill, and yet each one's handwriting is a habit, here used in the sense of clothing for one's words. People can be identified by their handwriting, because it is their habitual way of making meaningful symbols. Eating at certain times of the day is a habit. Many people have a habitual breakfast. It is the same every morning, year in and year out. Spelling is a habit. Most people learn to spell a word the same way every time it is used. And yet, spelling becomes a skill when one can figure out how a word should be spelled. Looking up words in the dictionary may become a habit, but it takes skill to find a particular word or the special meaning for which you are searching. Learning the multiplication table becomes a habit, but it takes skill to multiply 2 numbers of 6 digits each. Using a toothbrush twice a day may be a habit, but it takes skill to manipulate it properly.

Habits tend to be classified as automatic responses. The information, or experience, is so deeply imbedded in the medulla, that it can be brought forward by pressing the proper button. Habits become

skills when they are put to use. Skills can also become automatic, such as manipulating a microscope, shifting gears in an automobile, making a piecrust, using a safety razor, doing the rumba, operating a punch press, playing the piano, typing on the typewriter, using a backhand stroke in tennis, and so on.

Many habits and skills can be learned in the school. The elementary school is responsible for many of them, particularly those related to the so-called fundamentals or tools of education. But many new ones must be acquired in the secondary school, and some old ones unlearned. Youngsters have, through some unfortunate experiences, learned poor habits of reading, spelling, counting, talking, writing, singing, playing, etc. Skill in the use of these tools has been impaired in varying degrees. If the secondary school is to be able to advance such students, it must assume the task of providing remedial work, so that new and better habits may be substituted for the unsatisfactory ones. Unless a student has made the combinations of the 4 fundamental operations in arithmetic, fractions, and decimals a habit, he is going to have an extremely hard time acquiring any skills in the operations of algebra. Unless he has acquired the habit of looking at his audience when he talks, he will never become proficient as a public speaker. Unless he has acquired the habit of mastering each vocabulary as it appears in his foreign language lessons, he is not going to become skillful in the translation of sentences. Unless he learns the habit of skimming when he consults a reference book or article, he will never acquire skill in gathering information rapidly and successfully. Let us end this tentative list with one further illustration. Unless the student acquires the habit of keeping the lens of his camera always clean, he is not going to become a skillful photographer.

Just as emotional attitudes and mental techniques must be directed toward fulfilling the 4 major objectives of education, so do desirable habits and skills have their part to play. A desirable attitude toward a certain health problem, such as good teeth, should result in the habit of good tooth care and periodical visits to the dentist. Similarly, desirable habits may be fostered with respect to the association of certain color combinations for pleasing effects, with respect to exercising the right of the franchise, and with respect to the periodical saving of a certain amount of money. Skills

that may be acquired in the field of each of the 4 objectives are playing tennis, making attractive place cards, conducting a meeting according to *Roberts' Rules of Order*, and taking stenographic notes of a lecture.

SUMMARY

If we are to improve the content of secondary school instruction from within, we must reorganize and revitalize the selected information of each course in such a way that it contributes to life adjustment education for every youth. It must prepare him to give better attention to the care of his body; it must show him how to avoid unnecessary worry; it must show him better ways to the establishing and the maintaining of a happy home, to getting along sociably with his fellow men, and to becoming a better citizen of his own country and of the world; it must reveal to him what his own possibilities and limitations are so that he may more successfully discover and cope with the kind of job that will bring him satisfaction and financial reward; and it must help him to budget his income and make his expenditures wisely.

The school has the additional task of creating in the visceral recesses of the body those desirable attitudes that will predispose the individual to the desirable type of action that follows upon the excitatory stimulus. It will, so far as it is within its power, give to the recipient such a sound body of worth-while knowledge, that he will respond intelligently, as well as emotionally when he has important decisions to make. And, lastly, it will, wherever possible, assist the individual to acquire those habits and skills in the area of each of the objectives of health, leisure, social living, and economic efficiency, that his own actions will thereby be simplified and expedited.

If, then, we can carry on this evolutionary process by reorganizing the curriculum of the secondary school from within, we may achieve the biggest goal, "to make kids better."

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. In your area of specialization, how many subdivisions are listed in the college catalog?
2. What evidences can you present of an adherence to the doctrine of formal discipline on the part of any of your instructors?

3. Give specific illustrations in the secondary school field that will show the differences between the theory of formal or mental discipline and the theory of transfer, as developed in chapter 10.
4. Show how the objectives of the "Educational Policies Commission," the "Imperative Educational Needs of Youth," and the "Educational Needs of Youth," of the *Evaluative Criteria* fit into the scheme presented in Table 23.
5. Find out from a classmate who is taking the same course that you are, but under a different instructor, the different emphases on the subject matter of the course as compared with those in the course you are taking.
6. To what extent have any of your attitudes been changed since you came to college? How do you account for these changes?
7. Take some decision which you have recently made. What parts did emotional attitudes and reasoning play in the making of the decision?
8. We assume that you have a particular skill of some sort. How was this skill developed in you?

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Education for Health

IF you were asked what one gift above all others you preferred, would you have to think twice to say, "a long, healthy, and happy life"? Did you ever ask yourself what good you would be to yourself or to anybody else if, all of a sudden, you were extinguished? Isn't life itself your most cherished possession? And are you not willing to do everything you can to prolong this life of yours, so that you may enjoy the multitude of wonderful experiences in store for you?

Yes, life, indeed, is a precious thing. Sometimes its flame burns so uncertainly and flickeringly that we almost despair of keeping it alive. The second question a mother asks upon the birth of her child is, "Is it alive?" Hospitals and the medical profession make use of every possible facility to keep the spark of life aflame in prematurely born infants and in those who are physically weak. The same solicitude is extended toward the individual as he progresses from one stage of his life to the next. We have developed an extensive system of medical service in the way of physicians, surgeons, dentists, psychiatrists, public health nurses, and others, and have established clinics and hospitals for the detection of ailments and for the care of the ill. But that is not all. Prevention has come to have an important role in the field of health. Voluntary and professional organizations are educating the public to watch out for the signs of cancer and heart trouble, in the belief that an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure.

Health is a universal problem. Not one of us can escape its impact upon us. Wherever we go, whatever we do, we take our bodies with us, and it is our daily prayer that we can bring them back home with us. It is not only what is happening within our bodies that concerns us, it is also the question as to our avoidance of accidents from the outside to our bodies. The health of our bodies is affected by what we eat, by the amount of sleep and rest we give it, by the secretions of the duct and ductless glands, by our methods of elimination, and by the state of our own mental health.

We are realizing more and more the relevancy of the Roman adage, "*Mens sana in corpore sano*"—a sound mind in a sound body. When "God's in his heaven—all's right with the world," body tone is in harmony with mental tone. There is nothing in this whole world that gives a person a feeling of greater *joie de vivre* than to be feeling physically and mentally fit. The two phases are interrelated and interdependent. Worry can result in an imbalance in internal secretions that will cause an individual to think that he is actually ill. On the other hand, real illness may cause the mind to be depressed, which starts the vicious cycle going. The state of such a man becomes infinitely worse as the symptoms progress. Yet we have those fortunate persons who, in spite of bodily afflictions, evince a happiness and a serenity of mind that makes them shine like beacons of good will to all men. In these instances, mind controls matter. The relationship between mind and body is so delicate that it is now a recognized fact that many individuals consult physicians on imaginary ailments. Consequently, one function of the modern physician is to act as a sort of psychiatrist for such patients, whose symptoms are often relieved just through the consultation itself.

To direct the boys and girls who are in our schools to a better and saner viewpoint toward and practice of health, this objective needs to receive the greatest attention on our part. Spencer, you will recall, listed direct self-preservation as the first element in the knowledge that was of most worth. His error lay in his belief that knowledge itself would be sufficient. We know that it is only the beginning. Knowledge without application is like a ship without a rudder. One doesn't get anywhere. On the other hand, neither do we know where we are going if we lack the necessary data whereby to steer our course. Knowledge and its use are complementary. It is this relationship that the school must seek to effect.

TEACHING FOR HEALTH

It behooves every teacher, then, to be a teacher of health. Of course, not the same emphasis can or will be given to the objective by all teachers. It is obvious that the teacher of health will devote more time to this area than will the teacher of speech, but the latter will not overlook the possible contributions of his subject to better health understanding and practices on the part of his pupils.

All teachers are concerned with matters of ventilation, posture, and with the mental tone of the pupils in their classes. Teachers must be conscious of these factors. How can effective work of any kind be accomplished if the room is too hot or too cold, if the room is stuffy, if the sunlight makes a glare in the room, if the chairs or seats are not adjusted to the size of the pupil, if pupils are allowed to assume a sloppy, slovenly posture, and if there is a strained atmosphere of tension between teacher and class? Furthermore, are not good health practices being violated if pupils are allowed in the classroom who have headaches and who sneeze and cough, thereby subjecting others to infection? It is true that teachers tend to lose themselves in what they are teaching, so that they become oblivious to the externals of the classroom. Even so, the teacher who is really on his toes is aware of excessive heat, stuffiness, or poor posture, and takes steps to correct these improper situations. But this awareness is not found in most teachers. To effect a consciousness of what is happening in the classroom, the teacher and the pupils should study the problems of temperature, ventilation, and posture, and appoint committees whose task it is to look after such matters. It will then be the assignment for one pupil to keep tab on the temperature, another to see to the raising and lowering of the shades, another to turn on the lights when they are needed, another to raise or lower the windows, another to report on the posture of class members, and another to keep a record of the health status of the pupils. If co-operative efforts of this type were set in motion, it does seem that the pupils will become aware of the carry-over value of these activities. Consequently, arrangements must be made whereby each pupil, in turn, performs as many of the offices as time permits.

There is another important phase of health that was mentioned above, viz., that of the mental tone of the classroom. This condition is, to a great extent, under the control of the teacher. Cheerfulness

and happiness are necessary to effect fruitful activity in the class. The attitude of the teacher will be reflected in the class. If the teacher is one of good cheer, the class will respond in like manner. But if the teacher is a sourpuss, a heavy sort of despair will settle like a fog upon the pupils and cause them to resent doing anything. Instead of working with the teacher, they will resort to all the means they can devise to resist participation.

Even the remarks made by the teacher can be construed in such a way that pupils take offense. The teacher may not have had the slightest intention of hurting anybody's feelings, but the tone of voice, the use of a certain word, or the glance of the eye may have been just slightly "off the beam." We must be constantly on guard not to offend. As for the teacher who takes a sadistic delight in satirical or ironical comments on a pupil's comments, actions, or appearance, he can never hope to win the confidence of the class. "Put yourself in his place" should be our watchword, whenever we are tempted to be too flippant in our remarks. Consideration for others will benefit the mental tone of any classroom.

Safety

A third factor in the general health program is that of safety. Ever since cave-man days the human being has been subjected to the fortuitous hazards of nature and the contrived hazards fashioned by man himself. Climbing up or down a mountainside to avoid slipping on a loose rock, avoiding the onrush of some wild beast, dodging a missile hurled by an enemy, trying not to get burned in building a fire, these are only a few of the dangers that beset our primeval ancestors. Today's counterparts are dodging the mechanical projectile that hurls itself down on highways, slipping in the bathtub, falling downstairs, getting a shock from a poorly insulated electric appliance, seeking protection against atomic radiation, and hosts of other similar hazards. Realizing the pecuniary losses that result from layoffs due to accidents, insurance companies that issue policies against accidents are leaders in publicizing precautions to be taken so as to minimize the chances against the occurrence of mishaps.

Slogans have been fashioned for the purpose of calling attention to the possibility of danger. "Stop! Look! Listen!" is still found at many grade crossings. "Go slow and see our town. Go fast and see

our jail." "Better be safe than sorry." "Look out for the other fellow." "The life you save may be your own." A skull and crossbones is placed on labels that warn about the poison in the vial or bottle. Warnings are periodically issued prior to week-end holidays. And yet the traffic toll continues to mount. So many youths are involved in accidents on the highways that the term "teeniciders" has been coined to apply to them. No one knows if these youngsters had ever had instruction in safe driving. If they had had such instruction, then it could not have had much effect upon them. Something is amiss somewhere. Isn't it possible to teach caution? We need to take stock of what we are teaching, or we need to intensify what we are doing.

WORRY

Since those of you who are reading and studying this material are college students, most of whom are preparing to teach, let us take time out to discuss one phase of your mental health in the hope that you may become more sympathetic teachers. Worry is a mischievous imp that can play havoc with the tone of well-being of any individual. Poor mental health may, it is true, be due to such functional diseases as *dementia praecox*, manic depression, and psychoneurosis, as well as to such organic causes as paresis, lesions in the nervous system, arteriosclerosis, alcoholism, and low-grade mental inheritance. These afflictions demand the attention of the specialist. We are not here concerned with these factors. Our attention is directed toward that phase called worry, over which we can, if we will, exercise control. It is when we haven't strength of character enough to master the onset of worry that we get into trouble.

In the first place, early conditioning has had much to do with the present state of your mental health. If your preschool years were happy ones, during which you enjoyed the love and confidence of your parents and learned to adjust to the affirmative and negative aspects of social living, you are, other things being equal, a fairly well-adjusted individual today. If, on the other hand, there was undue friction among members of the family, yourself included, if you were never quite sure just where you stood, if you became indecisive in your actions, if even during those years you were tainted with unnecessary worry, then you are paying the penalty today in subjecting yourself to worries that might be avoided.

There are, of course, certain conditions or eventualities that can

TABLE 24. Problems of the Coming Industrial Age and Their Educational Implications (continued)

<i>Control:</i> LAISSEZ-FAIRE POLICY	BEGINNINGS OF SOCIAL LEGISLATION	INCREASING GOVERN- MENT CONTROL BY	NEW SCIENCE OF GOVERNMENT
Personal initiative and enterprise	Health and morals Hours of labor Conditions of work	Information Advice Direction	HOW TO DEVELOP COOPERATIVE POWERS OF INDIVIDUAL
<i>Administration:</i> INDEPENDENCE OF INDIVIDUAL	BOSS AND WORKER	COOPERATIVE CONTROL	STUDY OF ART AND SCIENCE OF ADMINISTRATION
	Strikes Boycotts Lockouts Collective bargaining	SCIENTIFIC MANAGE- MENT	
		GOVERNMENT CONTROL	
		Increasingly imper- sonal	
<i>Tempo:</i> LEISURELY TEMPO	INCREASING TEMPO	QUICK TEMPO	MUCH ATTENTION TO PROBLEMS OF THE USE OF LEISURE
LONG HOURS—LOW PRODUCTIVITY	LONG HOURS—IN- CREASED PRO- DUCTIVITY	SHORT HOURS— HIGH PRODUCTIVITY	PROVISION FOR THE "RAINY DAY"
RHYTHM OF THE SEASONS	REGIMENTATION OF LIFE	PERIODIC SHUTDOWNS	
	Whistles Time clocks	MUCH { IDLENESS OR LEISURE	PROBLEMS OF HYGIENE —PHYSICAL AND MENTAL
		When is a vacation un- employment?	

be sufficient causes for worry. Reverses in the family fortunes, failure to receive a certain promotion or increase in salary, moving from *one environment to another and trying to adjust to new conditions*, pressure to keep up one's quota on the production line, pressure to keep up with the Joneses, sickness in the family, and separation of parents. But the greatest contributing factor is trying to have our horse and buggy bodies keep pace with a stratospheric environment.

In his annual report of 1930, Dean W. F. Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University, presents the social and economic changes that have taken place throughout the various periods of our nation's development. They are so pertinent to the problem of adjustment to changing conditions that they are herewith presented for analysis by you.¹

¹ William Fletcher Russell, *Report of the Dean for the Year Ending June 30, 1930, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1930, pp. 14, 15.*

Worry in itself can be positive or negative. It is positive when it is met face to face, when the situation is analyzed and steps are taken to extricate oneself from the mess, when reason is brought to bear upon its solution, and when no one gets unduly excited or wrought up over the whole thing. When it is negative, worry can wreak havoc upon the body. The nervous system gets wrought up and tense. This condition affects two vital organs of the body, the stomach and the heart. A common saying is, "I have butterflies in my stomach." This is just another way of identifying the trouble as indigestion. There is an excessive emission of hydrochloric acid. The normal balance of the stomach is upset. If the aggravation tends to continue, the next development is stomach ulcers. These, in turn, if neglected, may result in cancer. One is reminded of the fable of the battle that was lost because a nail in the horse's shoe was lost. Dire consequences can come to pass as the result of neglecting small beginnings. In this instance, the small beginning is the worry that started the whole sequence of events.

Worry is like the raisin in the cider. If there is a desire on the part of the cider addict to make the potion a bit strong, he puts a raisin in the bottle of cider and corks it tight. The raisin begins to do things to the cider. What it does is to accelerate the generation of alcohol. Sometimes so great a pressure is built up inside the bottle that the glass is not strong enough to withstand the pressure. The result is an explosion. So it is with worry. It can be the disturbing agent that builds up pressure in the nervous system to such an extent that an explosion takes place. A gentle name that we give to this outburst is a nervous breakdown. This nervous breakdown may, if aggravated, result in a more advanced state of mental depression.

We mentioned the digestive system as one of the vital organs affected by worry. The other is the heart. Worry taxes the heart and the blood stream that courses through it. This is an especially prevalent condition affecting those who have to compete in the highly complex society of today. Whereas, in the horse and buggy days, a man could take his time to go somewhere or to make decisions that affected his own destiny and that of a few others, today he flies across the continent in a half a day and makes split second decisions that touch the interests of thousands, if not millions. In this instance, the pressure put upon him is terrific. There are times when

he cannot stand the strain. The next thing we know is that we read in the paper that so-and-so, aged 54, died of a heart ailment.

College Students and Worry

Now, where is it that worry enters the lives of college students? We can list 5 contributing factors. The first is money. Some students are fortunate enough to be provided with funds sufficient to encompass their necessary and luxury expenses. If there is any worry on this score, it is not theirs, it is on the part of dad and mother, who may have to scrimp and save in order to keep son and daughter well provided. But there are many students who have just barely enough on which to get along. Every penny, as it were, has to be accounted for. An unforeseen emergency, such, even, as the purchase of an extra book, may unbalance the budget. So there is a constant, nagging worry as to whether or not the money will last. Then there are the students who come to college on a shoestring. Maybe they have enough to take care of the necessary expenses attendant upon meeting initial expenses, but beyond this amount they simply have to depend upon securing a job to stay on in school. Many of these students take the whole thing in their stride. They are optimists who have faith that, with hard work and prayer on their side, they need have no fear about the morrow. But there are all too many who have to pinch their pennies to such an extent that all they can think of is money, money, money. They lie awake nights wondering how they are going to come out. Of course, their success in their studies is bound to suffer. But the matter goes further. When this student sees that he has to give up something because he hasn't the money for it, he economizes on his meals. He reasons that that is one place where he can tighten his belt. What often happens is that he becomes undernourished and an easy prey to illness. He burns his candle at both ends. His body is weakened by self-imposed fasting, and the accompanying worry coöperates by upsetting his whole equilibrium.

A second worry that affects many students is connected with grades. Here we have two groups, one that is afraid that it may not maintain an all-A record, and the other which is afraid that it may be dropped from school because of an all-F record. The latter group has a much more legitimate excuse for worry than has the former.

Some, it is true, were doubtful cases when they entered college. But, doubtful or not, the impending calamity of failure brings on worry. What kind of worry? Worry about what the parents and the family will say. Worry about returning defeated to the home town that gave them such a send-off when they left to enter college. Worry about the effect that failure may have upon future job opportunities. Worry over the effect that failure might cause to their own personalities.

Then there is the opposite extreme, the student who came out of high school as an all-A student and the student who has received a scholarship, the retention of which depends upon maintaining a certain academic average. This individual has the double worry of keeping up his academic standing and of balancing his budget. Failure to receive the scholarship may be the decisive factor in his ability to keep himself in school, with all that that would mean to his future career. But the individual who really has the least excuse for worry is the one whose life is blasted if he doesn't succeed in maintaining an all-A scholastic record. He is not entirely to blame for his attitude. The college itself, and those staff members whose vision is so limited that they can think of education only in terms of the accumulation of credit hours and credit points, are the culprits. The lives of many students are warped personally and socially by competition for grades. Consequently, it should be a wholesome experience for the all-A seeker to have the tension removed by the receipt of an occasional B or even a C. From then on it might be possible for him to lead a more normal life.

There is still another problem attached to worry over grades, and that is in connection with admission to such professional schools as medicine. It seems that we have here the most vicious type of competition for grades, so that students resort to all sorts of devices, fair and underhanded, to come out on top. "Many are called, but few are chosen." There is many a heartbreak on the part of the student and his parents when he receives his rejection notice.

A third worry is associated with social prestige. We must recognize the fact that many students, especially girls, go to college to maintain or enhance their social position. So much emphasis has come to be placed on membership in campus social organizations that success or failure comes to be measured by not only whether

or not the girl is chosen for a sorority, but even for *which* sorority. Sororities and fraternities are graded according to the national and also local prestige that has been accorded them. Naturally, only a limited number can be selected. Hopes are raised high. It even becomes a matter of life and death, socially, that is. Great is the wailing and gnashing of teeth on the part of those who lose out. In the lives of many of the girls, perhaps *no more crucial moment ever* arises. The anticipatory worry is enough to drive them to distraction, and then, when the blow (?) falls, the bottom seems to have dropped out of their world. They have not been schooled sufficiently to consider the episode a side issue to what many still believe to be the more important aspect of a college experience, that of getting an education.

Family relationships constitute a fourth source of worry. The student may realize the sacrifices that his parents are making that he might benefit from an experience that had been denied them. He may have come to school in opposition to the wishes of one parent or both. He may come from a divided home, or one in which his parents are living together only as a matter of convenience. Any one or all of these factors may be plaguing his waking or even sleeping moments, so that his mind is in a state of unrest. The effects are bound to make themselves felt in his inability to concentrate on his studies.

And then there is love. Thurber has said that there is not much you can do about the verb, to love. It is only natural that, in a co-educational institution, boys and girls form mutual admiration societies and interpret their feelings as true love. Well, no matter how true it may be, it is the real McCoy while it lasts. And what havoc it can play with the emotions! A molehill becomes a mountain. A little misunderstanding can be the most calamitous catastrophe that ever befell a human being. Neither party can eat, sleep, or study. Each one waits for the telephone to ring, and jumps up every time the bell tinkles, hoping and hoping that it is he (or she) to ask for forgiveness, etc. Yes, love can be a most disturbing factor in the life of a student. Probably, the difficulty may be even worse when the other party lives back home. All communication, then, has to be by letter or by telephone, and the suspense can be that much more prolonged.

Well, we have listed 5 factors which can be causes for worry on the part of the college student. Shall we just let the student go on worrying, or is there anything we can do about it? What is needed above all else on the part of any individual whose mind is distracted by worry is to have an outlet for his emotions. We read of Mary that she "kept all these things in her heart." That's where Mary was wrong. That is where she resembled the raisin in the bottle of cider. Worry, confined to oneself, is like a cancer that gnaws and gnaws on the tissues of the nerves until a person can't stand it any longer. A psychiatrist is the one to whom such an individual should go, but a psychiatrist isn't always available. It is here that those churches that have a confessional have a certain advantage. If a person can pour out his troubles to some one else, he, like Pilgrim in *Pilgrim's Progress*, will slough off his intolerable burden and thereby ease his soul. There is nothing like having a confidant to whom you can trust your woes and sorrows. The mere realization that somebody else shares your worries brings you a peace of mind that sets you at ease.

This confidant may be a pal, a friend of the family, the family doctor, or a teacher. But, whoever he is, he must be one in whom you have complete trust. Nothing can be more disastrous than to discuss your personal affairs with a blabbermouth. So be sure that the one to whom you go is a person of discretion. It may be enough for you merely to recount your troubles. That is what we call "getting it off your chest." Just to be able to sit and tell your story may be all the catharsis you need. Of course, if your friend can give you the kind of encouragement or advice that you need, so much the better. The point is, to find someone whom you admire and trust, and let him share your woes with you. It may turn out that he will want some help from you. In that case, do as you would be done by.

The Teacher and Worry

So far, we have discussed worry as it affects your own selves, but how about your attitudes as teachers? Our discussion may have served to render you conscious of the boys and girls whom you are going to face in your classrooms. There is Dick who hasn't prepared his homework, and Susan who can hardly keep awake, and Jean who looks like a scared rabbit, and George who can't concentrate.

Did you know that Dick was out with a gang of boys until the wee hours of the morning, that Susan stayed up all night with her sick widowed mother, that Jean's father struck her at breakfast because she spilled her cup of coffee, and George had heard his mother tell his father that morning that she was going to leave him? If you yourself know what trouble is like, you will take a thought in time and hesitate to bawl out Dick, Susan, Jean, and George in front of the class. Instead you will ask each one to see you privately and try to get them to unburden themselves to you. What if they should cry? You have a handkerchief handy somewhere, haven't you? Yes, there is much that you, as a teacher, can do to lighten the load of worry that weighs down upon your own youngsters. Above all, be cheerful and happy, even if the day be dark and dreary. As Hugo said, "Is it not a thing divine to have a smile which, none know how, has the power to lighten the weight of that enormous chain which all the living in common drag behind them." "Smile and the world smiles with you. Weep and you weep alone."

Up to this point we have been discussing those phases of physical and mental health that are the concern of all teachers. We hope that we have made it clear that all of you do have a common interest in seeing to it that your classrooms are satisfactorily ventilated, heated, and lighted, that you observe proper precautions with respect to physical indispositions on the part of your pupils, that the classroom itself possesses a pleasant, attractive atmosphere, and that you are an understanding teacher, in whom your pupils can put their trust.

HOW ALL TEACHERS MAY CONTRIBUTE TO THE HEALTH OBJECTIVE

We now turn to the various subject areas to try to discover just what each one may do in its efforts to contribute to the health objective. We have already said that not all subjects can contribute equally to this or any other objective. But, unless the teacher makes an effort to get each objective across to his pupils in so far as it is humanly possible for him to do so, to just this extent is he failing to achieve the goals of education. We cannot repeat the statement often enough that no subject is an end in itself. It is of value *only* when it serves to provide pupils with knowledge and practice that will enable them "to do better the desirable things that they will do any-

way."² If we can show how it is possible to do this by preserving subject areas, we may meet and overcome the criticism that subjects as such have no place in the modern curriculum. At least, we are realistic in recognizing that the *status quo* is going to be with us for a long time to come. Our present endeavor, then, is to devise ways and means to make each subject an active part of each pupil's life.

The Teacher of English

In oral expression the importance of posture and good breathing habits should receive constant attention. Learning to converse with others may help to develop poise, self-assurance, and control of nervousness. A tea or reception can be planned by the class so as to enable boys and girls to "break the ice." Variations on this type of project need to be devised so that adjustments to new situations can be practiced. Participation in dramatics and debate may be even of better assistance in reducing the worry that attends adolescent attempts to mingle socially. In that phase of oral expression that requires the selection of topics to be presented to the group, subjects dealing with school and community health and safety problems are very appropriate. The same situation is true in written expression. Suggestions are: our water supply system, grade-A milk, our school health department, safety of school grounds, safety in the home, why we need traffic rules and regulations, accidents that might have been prevented, how to make our classroom a pleasant place in which to work, unnecessary worries I have had, how our local health board operates, balanced diets offered in our cafeteria, rat control, the local immunization program, dangers in athletics, etc. The list is indicative of what an alert teacher and class can do in bringing home the importance of practicing health habits. As often as possible, stress must be laid upon the activity side—what is it that is being done, and what is it that each one of us individually, or all of us collectively, needs to do.

In reading we find more of a passive relationship to our objective than we do in expression, although the reading habit itself is an activity. Tests of reading ability show that in a seventh grade class, for example, the range is from fourth grade to eleventh grade. It

² Thomas H. Briggs, *Improving Instruction*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933, p. 177.

may be that much of the distaste displayed by boys and girls for their work in reading is due to their inability to comprehend what they read. Such a negative attitude would have its effect on their mental health. Recognizing this situation, many schools are adjusting reading materials to the reading level of the pupil. More and more of them are providing remedial reading aids so as to raise the level of the pupil to one more nearly approximating that of his group. It does not require a great stretch of the imagination to picture the state of despair or even melancholy on the part of a pupil who is on the outside looking in. An unhappy boy or girl cannot enjoy the literature or reading class. Teachers must become aware of these variations in reading levels and adjust reading materials accordingly. Another contribution to the health objective is instruction in proper reading habits so as to avoid fatigue and eyestrain.

In passing from the mechanical aspects of reading to the content of what is read, we find that there are many opportunities to read articles of many kinds dealing with health problems—first aid, safety, sanitation, hygiene, nutrition, control of disease, and medical treatment. Stories of physical prowess are found in articles dealing with games and sports. Stories or narratives dealing with the lives of those who have been physically handicapped may serve as an inspiration to those who are not quite sure of themselves. The reading of poetry and beautiful prose may serve as a release for the emotions or as an escape from worry. There are essays that emphasize the importance of acquiring a happy frame of mind.

The Teacher of Social Studies

In history we find accounts of mankind's health habits and practices from prehistoric times to the present. We see how man has fought constantly to overcome the health and safety hazards that have beset him. The plagues of the middle ages were due to unsanitary and unhealthful living conditions. In order that we might be more charitable to our neighbors, we may find that the study of health conditions in other countries may cause us to evaluate and pay more particular attention to those in our own country. A study of changing attitudes in the care and treatment of the mentally ill would be a revelation to many pupils. A further investigation of county and poor farms might be even more profitable.

Improved posture, grace, and poise are other possible outcomes.

Health and physical education provide important knowledge concerning disease, immunization, quarantine, and other preventive measures; water supply, water purification, and sewage disposal; grade-A milk; nutrition; preservation of food; stimulants, intoxicants, and narcotics; and cleanliness.

Understanding and the use of safety rules aid in protecting and saving lives by the avoidance of danger—fire hazards, traffic hazards, home and industrial accidents, etc. Safety is taught in connection with apparatus work in the gymnasium and with athletic contests of all kinds. Learning to swim may save a life.

Participation in physical activities should be so conducted as to result in a feeling of satisfaction, a sense of achievement, and to furnish relief from worry, strain, and emotional tension.

The Teacher of Practical Arts

Homemaking, like physical education and biology, should be aimed primarily at the health objective. These are the emphases that should be observed in order to insure the greatest amount of carry-over: diet and nutrition, food preservation, food preparation, methods of detecting spoiled foods, hygiene, child care, home nursing, first aid, safety in the home, ventilation, heating, safe water, and healthful clothing. An attractively served meal is an aid to digestion.

Agriculture presupposes coöperation via healthful exercise on the farm. Much of what was said about biology applies to agriculture. Sanitation, pest and vermin control, and the use of sprays are important health measures. Safety measures concerning machinery and electricity come into the picture.

Industrial arts should deal with safety measures in handling tools and machinery, ventilation, lighting, disposal of waste, dust in the air, and first aid.

Typing may improve motor coördination. Good posture should be emphasized. There should be lessons on how to avoid fatigue. Eyestrain and improper lighting are important topics.

On the mental health side, home arts, in the study of the family, should discuss the psychological factors involved in living together. Clashing decorations should be avoided. Color schemes may be em-

ployed to allay emotional tension. Skills learned in the shop may be transferred to the home shop, where their execution may serve as an *emotional outlet*.

The Teacher of Fine Arts

A study of the muscular and bone structure of the body enters into the anatomy of figure drawing and painting. All kinds of posters dealing with health data can be used to spearhead drives. Crafts serve to rehabilitate the physically handicapped. They also have a direct therapeutic value.

A well-groomed individual, a beautiful building, an artistically decorated home, all help to give a feeling of good mental health.

In music, voice lessons help to improve breathing and posture. We find problems of sanitation and safety in the care of wind instruments. Acuity of hearing may be improved through the study of music. In singing, ventilation is an important factor.

On the mental health side, music provides mental relaxation and a release from emotional stress, worry, and tension. This is its therapeutic value. Music may "give a lift" to one's morale.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. When you make an observation in a classroom, note the attention paid to lighting, heat, and ventilation, and report on what you observed.
2. Compare the varying degrees of mental health practiced in the classes of your different instructors. What are the factors that make one class a pleasant experience and another the opposite?
3. Observe a series of classes and note any reference made at any time to matters dealing with physical and mental health.
4. Make a poll of some of your classmates to determine what their chief worries are and what they are doing to overcome them.
5. Compile a list of books that would be helpful for anyone who is having personality difficulties.
6. Select a unit in your special teaching area and develop a lesson plan in which you might emphasize the objective of physical health.
7. Select another unit and do the same for mental health.

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Education for Leisure

ALL work and no play makes Jack a dull boy." This adage was most appropriate in the days when life was real and life was earnest, and it was work from sunrise to sunset. The lot of man seemed to be work, work, work. But there also seems to be a constant yearning on the part of man to escape from work. Either he looks back to a time when he could enjoy life without working, or else he looks forward to that blessed occasion. And, if he finds that he can't attain it in his mortal shell, he has visions of eternal bliss in the world hereafter.

Our own heritage carries us back to the Garden of Eden with its perpetual leisure, which, however, could be savored only through adherence to a certain prohibition. When this prohibition was violated, "Unto Adam he said, because thou hast harkened unto the voice of thy wife, and has eaten of the tree, of which I commanded thee, saying, thou shalt not eat of it: cursed is the ground for thy sake: in sorrow shalt thou eat of it all the days of thy life: thorns and thistles shall it bring forth to thee; and thou shalt eat of the herb of the field; in the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread, till thou return to the ground. . . . Therefore the Lord God sent him forth from the Garden of Eden, to till the ground from whence he was taken."²

Likewise, we find hopes for the future as recompense for being cast out of paradise and subjected to a life of hardship and toil in these words of John: "Behold the tabernacle of God is with men, and he will dwell with them, and they shall be his people, and God

² Genesis III, 17-19, 23.

himself shall be with them, and be their God. And God shall wipe away all tears from their eyes; and there shall be no more death, neither sorrow, nor crying, neither shall there be any more pain: for the former things are passed away."²

Life has been a struggle for existence, individual, when one man's hand was set against that of another, and collective, when one nomadic tribe tried to defend itself from the attacks of another tribe. But, no matter what hardships man had to endure, and there were many, he somehow managed to find time in which to devise and carry on activities that tended to lessen the drudgery of toil. As a shepherd he fashioned his pipes and reeds and invented melodies to play on them. He could contemplate the starry heavens during his night vigils and marvel at their beauty as well as wonder about their *raison d'être*, and the order of their movements. When he gathered with the other shepherds, the tunes he played inspired them to dance, at first just naturally, and later in measured and repetitive movements. Other means of spending leisure time were concocted in the form of games between two or more participants, some of which have come down to us today, such as baseball, tennis, hockey, golf, dice, and cards.³

No matter how hard a man works, no matter how long he works, he will find some time to play and some means of enjoying himself. That is why it became essential for him to set aside a certain day each week, or periodically, for rest. In many instances, this rest period was associated with religious observances, but even then, it assumed the character of a leisure activity in that pleasure and joy were its concomitants.

There are two elements intimately related to attitudes toward leisure; one, that of a leisure class, and two, that of excessive use or abuse of leisure. We have already traced the development of a master class and a slave class, wherein the latter did all the work that made it possible for the former to devote their time to dance, to attend dramatic spectacles, to engage in competitive sports, to carry on political intrigue, to write poetry, to act the courtier, to go on vacation trips, to laze in the sun, in fact, to do anything that the mind listed. It was in eras when the leisure class, *per se*, was in its

² Revelation, XXI, 3, 4.

³ Paul Monroe, ed., *A Cyclopedia of Education*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1918, vol. 3.

heyday that the arts especially flourished. There was the court of Belshazzar, the splendor of the Persian, Phrygian, and Ionian kings, the magnificence of the Ming dynasty, the fourth and fifth centuries of Greece, the age of Augustus, the Elizabethan age, and the eighteenth century in France. There was something dazzling about all of these periods. Art, music, sculpture, architecture, drama, poetry, literature, philosophy, all flourished to a magnificent degree. But at a cost. All were made possible because the groups that produced them were built upon a class that was more or less slave in character. They were the product of blood, sweat, and tears, not their own, but of others, who suffered that they might enjoy.

There were, of course, many reasons for the upsurge of the slave class, but as good as any may have been the longing and yearning on their part to share in some of the pleasures of their masters. That there was a cleavage between upper and lower classes none can deny. Nor can we discount the natural desire of the underprivileged to bridge the gap and dream of dalliance in the meadows of an earthly paradise as a crowning achievement to a life of struggle. The *égalité* of the French revolutionary movement certainly had this goal in mind. Even today we see how strong this desire is in what is so proudly proclaimed as the American standard of living, viz., that all, no matter what the nature of their jobs, are able to enjoy the same kinds of leisure activities—autoing, movies, radio, television, attendance at sports spectacles, joining book clubs, playing golf, etc., etc.

SPARE TIME ACTIVITIES

The Industrial Revolution introduced a new problem in that it started the move from rural to urban areas and initiated a life of mechanical drudgery. Time for leisure under such conditions was at a low ebb. A century and a half were devoted to reducing the work day from 12 to 8 hours and the work week down to 40 hours. This is the situation in which we find ourselves today. What are we going to do about it? That's one of the questions to which the schools must try to find an answer.

The second phase of leisure, that related to its use and abuse, has had tremendous influence in coloring attitudes toward leisure. This is where the pursuit of leisure has become an end in itself, and where it has been carried to such violent extremes that it ends up by destroying itself or being destroyed by others. The gladiatorial combats

of the Roman Empire, the gaities in the days of Charles I, the frivolities and licentiousness of Phillippe d'Orleans, the excesses of the Florentine doges, all led to their suppression and the substitution of an austerity that looked upon all forms of enjoyment as instruments of the devil to lead the steps of the unwary straight to Hell. The asceticism of the early church fathers was a revolt against the worldly pursuits of the leisure class. Self-inflicted discipline was a means of preparing the wayward soul to enjoy more fully life in the heavenly hereafter.

Such was the heritage that came to us in the seventeenth century. The early Puritans were part and parcel of the Cromwellian reaction to the kind of life that was fashionable under Charles I. This reaction took the form of an almost ridiculous type of austerity in speech, dress, and behavior. Prohibitions were set up against all forms of frivolous action. The Connecticut Blue Laws enjoined strict observance of the Sabbath. Penalties were attached to violations of rules that to us seem absurd. Nevertheless, there were occasions when life was not such a dark, somber affair, and these increased as the influence of the church and the clergy decreased.

As the settlers pushed farther westward they did not, because they could not, live as close together as they had in New England. There were barn raisings, corn huskings, box suppers, church dinners, logging, trapping, and foot races which contributed to the enjoyment of social life.

But, for three centuries, the Sabbath was regarded as a day to keep holy. This practice came to be in decided contrast to the European custom where Sunday was a feast day, a holiday, one for sports and pleasure. Whereas, in New England man was made to fit the Sabbath, on the continent Sabbath was made to fit man. With the increase in immigration from these countries the latter part of the nineteenth century and the first part of the twentieth, the idea of the so-called continental Sunday began to make its impression upon us. Today it has become an accepted concept in most parts of the country. There are, however, certain areas where religious influences are at work to oppose this trend. Adherents of these groups may not go to movies, play cards, or dance, three forms of entertainment that they consider devices of the devil to cause individuals to stray from the straight and narrow. This practice may be said to be more common in the rural areas than it is in urban

centers. So far as amusement centers are concerned, it is hard to see any difference in what is available on Sundays from what is open on weekdays.

What Is Leisure?

In our discussion up to this point, there has been no attempt to define leisure except in general, descriptive terms of certain activities. *Webster's New International* says, "Freedom or opportunity afforded by exemption from occupation or business; time free from employment. Time at one's command, free from engagement; a period of unengaged time; hence, convenience; ease." Of the 24 hours in the day, we work so many; we sleep so many; the balance, then, comes under the head of leisure, or spare time. And it is the way in which we dispense these hours of convenience and ease that becomes our concern. Why? Because the individual's use of leisure affects not only himself but the social group of which he is a part. Good or evil may result, evil being the degradation or demoralization of the moral fiber of the individual.

It makes no difference how little or how much time there is at one's disposal, one will always find some means of play or enjoyment to which to put it. In terms of the kind of lives that we lead, our leisure activities may be classified as:

Desirable

Travel
Reading
Hiking
Swimming
Golf
Autoing
Rowing
Horseback riding
Archery
Card games
 (Contract)
 (Canasta)
Chess
Checkers
Dancing
Pool
Billiards

Doubtful

Poker
Slot machines
Betting
Punchboards
Numbers
Roulette
Dice

The list might be extended indefinitely because of the infinite variety of games and activities that might be included. What becomes our task is to find out what we in the school can do to assist boys and girls to choose and carry on those leisure activities that may, in the long run, profit them most.

But, before we can go into discussion of what we might do, there are three things to note. Many, many types of play are, in and of themselves, innocuous. What has happened is that they have been put to not so innocent uses. Dancing has long been associated with religious ceremonials and social amenities. Games of chance have matched the competitive skill of contestants in outguessing each other. Other games have tested the physical or mental process of the participants. There is nothing inherently evil in any of these activities. It is only when someone sees profit for himself in commercializing them that doubt arises as to their contribution to the worthy use of leisure. It is when someone suffers as a consequence of engaging in a leisure activity that leads us to question the validity of that activity. When dancing leads to immorality, when slot machines, punchboards, betting on sports events, poker, and pool relieve the individual of money that is actually needed for the support of himself and his family, when reading material verges on obscenity, when driving a car turns loose a highway maniac, and when it is to man's lowest and basest natures that the leisure activity appeals, then it is well to question the worth of participating in it. We must, however, bear in mind that, ordinarily, most of our leisure activities can be entered upon and participated in by us with much real pleasure to ourselves and to others. Dancing can be a delightful form of social entertainment. Card games can be a lot of fun as contests of skill and wits.

A second point to consider is that the best of leisure activities can degenerate into nonconstructive results. The player who gets angry at his partner in contract, the chap who breaks his golf clubs in anger over missing a putt, the spectator who shouts abuse at the umpire, and the fan who develops ulcers because the team for which he is rooting develops a losing streak, all of them have made a business, more or less, out of what should proffer enjoyment only. When this stage is reached, leisure activity passes out of the realm of the pleasurable and enters the world of the serious. One thing that we

must ourselves try to learn is to play for the sake of the play. If competition is involved, realize that one of the participants must win. To lose gracefully is almost as worth while to the loser as to win. The game has been well contested or fought. "Sorry you had to lose, old fellow. Better luck next time. I'll say that you certainly gave me the battle of my life."

Our third point is concerned with the speed-up tempo in which we live and the difficulties we face in adjusting ourselves to it. It is, in a way, related to the health objective, because our ability or inability to relax reacts in the way our ductless glands behave and in the resultant giving in or resistance to heart trouble. Drudgery has always been the bugbear of work. The causes of drudgery are repetitive movements associated with the performance of the job and a lack of interest attendant upon the activity. There simply has to be some sort of release valve to "let off steam." Sometimes the result of excessive violence is in the form of a fight, use of profanity, indulgence in alcohol—counterirritants to a drabness of life that becomes oppressive, or to a tension of intensive application to the job. In either case, an explosion seems sometimes necessary in order to maintain an emotional balance.

The Task of the Schools

It becomes, then, the task of the schools to supply bases for the future use of leisure time in a way that may be profitable to the individual and to the group. G. T. W. Patrick suggests that we must more or less revert to those forms of play that were part and parcel of our lives in the primitive eras of our existence.

The pace has become too rapid. Both the individual and society will have to learn to "let go" and breathe more deeply.

It would be easy to mention many changes in our manner of life which would tend in this direction, but, while such suggestions might be of priceless benefit to the individual who should adopt them, they stand so directly opposed to the stream of present social tendencies that one sees little hope of speedy changes of this kind. Such, for instance, would be more outdoor life; more walking and less riding, and in riding the return to the use of the horse instead of the automobile, especially to the use of the saddle horse; a return to the earlier forms of play, especially the rougher and ruder kinds; a return to fishing and camping and hunting; a

return to country life instead of city life; the owning and cultivating of the soil and the care of domestic animals; the increase of holidays and festivals; a very large decrease in the amount of our reading; the substitution of music, particularly tranquilizing music, for the ultra-stimulating theater and moving picture show; and finally, the increased cultivation of the quieting influences of art and religion. It would be easy to extend this list and as useless as easy, for it all means the complete reversal of our present tendencies. . . .

As long . . . as our social ideals remain as they are, so long will schools cultivate those mental traits which our social conditions demand, namely, intensive thought, analysis, attention, discrimination, keenness, shrewdness, and cunning—and so long may we expect frenzied social reactions and a craving for narcotic drinks and drugs. The mental traits just mentioned are those which conduce to individual efficiency, success, the exploitation of nature and of other men, the amassing of wealth, the increase of the bigness of everything, big business, big engines, big buildings, big cities, big ships, etc., and the fastness of everything, fast trains, fast steamships, fast motor-cars, fast communication. These things now stand for progress in the minds of most people, and consequently there is not at present much hope for change in our educational programme. When our ideals of progress change so that we shall prize quality rather than quantity, a measured limitation rather than unrestricted liberty, beauty rather than size, stability rather than rapidity, the true rather than the sensational, then we may learn to emphasize other traits in the education of our young. A system of education is conceivable which should cultivate every part of the human personality with equal care, the body as well as the mind, and of the mind not the intellect alone, but every shade of fine feeling and noble impulse—an education which should bestow the ability to master self as well as master nature, the ability to rest, relax, and obey, as well as to dominate other men, the ability to confine all our desires, passions, ambitions, and activities within just limits.*

THE ENJOYMENT OF THE BEAUTIFUL

There is another aspect to leisure that merits attention in our schools. It concerns the aesthetic elements in life. Where'er we turn, where'er we look, we see all around us things of beauty.

A thing of beauty is a joy forever:

Its loveliness increases, it will never

* G. T. W. Patrick, *The Psychology of Relaxation*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1916, pp. 257-261.

Pass into nothingness; but still will keep
 A bower quiet for us, and a sleep
 Full of sweet dreams, and health, and quiet breathing.⁴

There is beauty in the rolling clouds, and
 placid shingle beach,
 In feathery snows, and whistling winds,
 and dim electric skies:
 There is beauty in the rounded woods, dark
 with heavy foliage,
 In laughing fields, and dinted hills, the
 valley and its lake:
 There is beauty in the gullies, beauty on
 the cliffs, beauty in sun and shade,
 In rocks and rivers, seas and plains—the
 earth is drowned in beauty.⁵

What is beauty? It's what affects our senses in such a way as to bring pleasure to us. As such it is strictly an environmental affair. We are educated to it, so that what appeals to one person may have a negative or opposite effect upon another. There is no universal law of beauty. Tastes differ among tribal groups, among various groups in the same country, and among individuals in the same group. The major differences, however, are environmental and cultural. A color combination that appeals to the Eskimo may have an opposite effect upon a Serb; the long neck of the Siamese belle may seem *de trop* to the African who likes his "gals" with extended lips; Byzantine architecture may be out of place in northern Germany; mission furniture looks impossible to the interior decorator of today; mutton sleeves of the '90's, hoop skirts of the mid-nineteenth century, long, billowing skirts, the short skirts of the '30's, and chatelaine watches were once considered extremely *au fait*.

Aesthetic Standards

Very often the grotesque of one generation becomes the accepted standard of good taste of the next. Witness the enthusiasm displayed by antique hobbyists when they rave over some piece of furniture that, in its day, was considered a monstrosity. If we can only con-

⁴ John Keats, *Endymion*, Bk. 1, Line 1.

⁵ Martin Farquhar Tupper, *Proverbial Philosophy of Beauty*.

vince ourselves and others that a particular object is endowed with beauty, we then come to believe that it really is beautiful. All we have to do is for enough of us to keep on shouting, "It is beautiful; it is beautiful." The rest follows as a matter of course. Even the doubting Thomases feel that they have to join the crowd, though reluctantly. This is the technique followed by fashion designers, painters, novelists, poets, architects, in fact, any or all who set out to mold or change existing standards of taste.

If we grant that the aesthetic attributes of life are environmental, cultural, and subject to change, it becomes the task of the school to adjust its pupils to the present tastes of society and to build certain bases for the future. The standards of the best judges of the day are to be accepted as the criteria for the judgments that we shall try to create. But we must always bear in mind that we should develop an open-minded attitude toward both the old and the new. It is just as bad to decry the old as out-of-date, *passé*, and of no account as it is to herald the new as the *ne plus ultra* of modernity, and that he who does not fall in line is too old-fashioned to be alive. There are heritages of an aesthetic nature that are watermarks of our culture, just as there are laws, customs, and mores. And many of these heritages are just as beautiful to us today as they were to those who lived with them centuries ago.

Aesthetic appreciations begin in the home. All these factors have their part in developing attitudes in the children of the home: color schemes in dress, rugs, draperies, bed throws, kitchen utensils, and walls, type and arrangement of furniture, wall decorations, absence or presence of books of one kind or another, magazines and the magazine stand, orderliness and neatness throughout the house, flowers and flower arrangements, landscaping of the yard or lawn, the music program heard over the radio, phonograph, or television, the kinds of movies that the family attends, and the conscious attention on the part of all to adopt and practice acceptable standards of etiquette. Children brought up under varying conditions with respect to the above items will vary in their feelings and emotional reactions to stimuli of an aesthetic nature. Some will develop a sensitivity to many forms of beauty, such as symphonic music, the poetry of Emily Dickinson, the Gothic style of architecture, the prose of Emerson, a proper table setting, and niceties in speech, whereas others

will respond to hillbilly music, the poetry of Edgar Guest, ramshackle buildings, the prose of Peter Dunne, any old way to eat, and slovenly speech. *Chacun à son gout!*

Environmental Contributions

The school receives boys and girls with all sorts of aesthetic backgrounds. One thing that it can do is to provide as attractive surroundings as it is possible to make them: landscaping of lawn, trees, shrubs, and flowers; a pleasing exterior to the building or buildings; corridors that are wide and colorful; classrooms that exhibit individual characteristics associated with the subjects taught in them; a library beautifully paneled, with colorful displays of jackets of new books; laboratories and gymnasium kept clean, orderly, and neat; and an auditorium whose very structure and composition impose a feeling of reverence and respect upon the audience. In German secondary schools the *Aula*, as the auditorium is called, is usually the most attractive room in the building.

The community contains the boys and girls whom the school receives. It should furnish examples of aesthetic qualities in the environment. Streets and avenues should be laid out with a view to wide vistas and ease of traffic. A boulevard effect should be approximated, with grass and trees in the center and at the sides. Houses should not be built too close together, and between the house and the sidewalk there should be a lawn. Strict zoning ordinances will protect those areas strictly reserved for homes from the encroachment of filling stations and business buildings. A park or parks will furnish not only ample facilities for all kinds of recreational activities, such as swimming pool, baseball and softball diamonds, shelter houses and fireplaces for picnics, a bandstand for outdoor concerts, lawns for croquet and bowling, tennis courts, basketball courts, and football gridirons, but will even have such care taken of them that citizens can enjoy them for their beauty.

In the business sections there will be so much pride in the "city beautiful" that all concerns will cooperate in having attractive store fronts and pleasing interiors, both as to color and arrangement of equipment and stock. Public buildings will be situated on land large enough to accommodate them and allow for attractive landscaping. This applies to courthouses, city halls, fire departments, public li-

braries, and schools. If children are accustomed to living in surroundings such as these that have been suggested, the chances are positive that they will acquire the habit of wishing to perpetuate the aesthetic phases of their environment. As Bobbitt says, "A world of beauty is stimulating. It inspires hopes, optimistic attitudes, and vigor of action. A world of ugliness is depressing. It generates apathy and indifference. It paralyzes effort."¹

HOW ALL TEACHERS MAY CONTRIBUTE TO THE LEISURE OBJECTIVE

There's a relationship between the aesthetic phase of leisure and the mental aspect of the health objective. Every classroom can contribute its share in at least two ways. The teacher, man or woman, can be attired in a becoming outfit and can maintain that friendly atmosphere that will result in excellent *rapprochment*. A sense of well-being permeating the atmosphere in which teacher and pupils assemble for work will produce far better results than one in which there is tension. Furthermore, little touches of color in the way of draperies, flowers, book displays, and accessories will add charm to any room. Charts, posters, bulletin boards, and what the teachers of foreign languages call "realia" can be so dealt with as to create within the classroom a feeling of belongingness. No one will then have the slightest difficulty in identifying a particular room as one in which history is taught, or mathematics, or English, etc. And the feeling should be one of pleasure, because the surroundings are pleasurable.

The Teacher of English

Since reading will be one of the leisure pursuits that most boys and girls will follow the rest of their lives, the teacher of English has a matchless opportunity to guide them in this area. Each classroom should be a miniature library. Arrangements are made whereby the main library sends to the classroom books of varying reading levels, covering many fields, fiction, biography, poetry, drama, adventure, travel, science, and vocations. These books are charged out like all library books. Another scheme is to have the

¹ Franklin Bobbitt, *How to Make A Curriculum*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1924, pp. 220-221.

pupils themselves bring to class books of their own that they have enjoyed reading and that they are willing for others to read. Magazines should not be exempted from this group. In fact, all teachers, no matter what their subjects, might do what is suggested for the teacher of English in stimulating their pupils to voluntary reading in their fields. All, too, should encourage their pupils to browse around in the school and public library (if there is one) and acquaint themselves with the wealth of materials offered.

As to content, there is the opportunity to read about the innumerable ways in which leisure has been enjoyed and how it may be attained. One can also read about the manifold forms of the beautiful as manifested in nature, in architecture, in sculpture, in painting, in music, in landscaping, in dress, in furniture, in oriental rugs, in ceramics, and in stagecraft. The beauty of thought, the rhythmic cadences, and the pictures painted by the word artist can be brought out in the reading of poetry. Judgment of the extent to which a job has been well done and criteria of evaluation with respect to the composition of a book or an article can be developed, but not to the point where criticism slays its own pleasurable reactions. There is something, for example, that happens to a person in the reading of a book like *Take Three Tenses*,⁸ which is more than just the enjoyment of the story. An additional fillip of pleasure comes from the way in which it is written, its word for word composition, and the vocabulary that so aptly portrays what the author tries to tell us. In other words, there is an aesthetic enjoyment in the production itself.

The same thing holds true of movies and stage productions. To winnow out the chaff and to retain the solid, whole grains is just as much the task of the teacher in developing judgment criteria for all dramatic performances as it is in the field of reading. The advent of television has created an additional task. Judgment values must be developed for all three media with respect to the structure of the plot, its suitable setting, the plausibility of the characters, the scenic effects, the language used, and historical accuracy.

There is another side to the work of the teacher of English. It has to do with the work in expression, written and oral. Topics con-

⁸ Rumer Godden, *Take Three Tenses*, Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1945.

cerning leisure activities are suitable for both oral and written productions. Games, sports, hiking, swimming, playing, reading (the list is almost endless) lend themselves readily to discussion by pen or tongue. Letter writing can be fun. There are those whose ego simply must find expression in poetry. Still others take delight in language itself as a medium of expression. Special combinations of words and phrases furnish them as much pleasure as composers find in the permutations and combinations of the musical scale.

The Teacher of Social Studies

History recounts the pains and pleasures experienced by humanity ever since the days of dalliance in the Garden of Eden. For a better understanding of the origins of the various games, sports, and types of recreation that have come down to us from earlier days, the class may well devote a special unit to their study and interpretation. Special projects may be assigned individual members for more intensive investigation. Examples would be: jacks, kite flying, marbles, tag, blindman's bluff, hide and seek, dice, contract, pocket pool, racing, social dancing, and magic tricks. In the study of other countries, such as in a course in world history, attention can be called to the intimate relations that exist between the culture of a people, the games they play, and their whole attitude toward the exercise and use of leisure. In fact, we shall find that many of the games we play are seemingly universal in nature. In this connection, a study of the Olympics might reveal the attempts on the part of social-minded sports enthusiasts to bring the world closer together by means of mass participation in games.

The aesthetic side of our objective may be served in studying the development of literature, sculpture, architecture, painting, and music in different countries and in different eras in our own country. What particular types of literature, prose, poetry, drama, were characteristic of a people at certain stages in their development? Who were the outstanding contributors among the writers? Are any of them well enough known for it to be worth our while to remember any of them? Have any of them affected later developments in literature? Questions such as these may be directed to the other areas mentioned above. In all instances, it is the significance of the part played by any of these fields in enhancing our own develop-

ment in literature, sculpture, architecture, painting, and music that counts.

As in the case of games and sports, what pupils discover about the aesthetic tastes of nations and peoples will assist them to obtain a better understanding of these nations and their peoples. They can be led to see how intimately related their culture, recreations, and aesthetic responses are to each other. What makes the difference in types of music? Why are certain colors preferred over others? Why are houses constructed the way they are? Why did the Puritans frown upon pleasures and such, and how did they circumvent the rigid prohibitions that hedged them in? How did the continental Sunday, as such, arise? Answers to these questions may result in developing more sympathetic attitudes toward human loves and frailties.

The Teacher of Mathematics

So often the teacher of mathematics is so immersed in his job of teaching mathematical operations that he forgets or overlooks the fact that many people in this world actually get a lot of fun out of mathematics. There are two things that the teacher can do to assist others to enjoy mathematics as a pastime. One has to do with problems that are concerned with sports and games, such as percentages of games won and lost, the angle at which to hit a billiard ball, the chances of holding a royal flush, the chances of tossing heads or tails for a penny, how to keep score on various games that involve mathematical computation, and how to read timetables. The other is to provide mathematical puzzles for analysis and solution by those who get a kick out of them. They are often called brain teasers or twisters. Many people work on them as others do crossword puzzles, double-crostics, and cryptograms. This puzzle element is one that is neglected by too many teachers of mathematics, who fail to recognize that in it they have an instrument that may result in the greatest carry-over value that their pupils may take from their study of mathematics.

Teachers may set the pattern of having all work in mathematics done in a neat, orderly fashion as one of the first steps contributing to the aesthetic phase of leisure. In working out the solution to an equation, have all the "equal" signs under each other. In drawing

geometrical figures, have them carefully constructed with straight-edge and compass. Use colored chalk to bring out salient parts of a figure. Geometry offers the opportunity to apply the aesthetic elements of form and design to the multitude of art forms in all that surrounds us. The isosceles triangle, the equilateral triangle, the square, the parallelogram, the rhombus, the circle, the polygon, all have their counterparts in dress, rug, and wallpaper designs, in statuary, in churches, in store windows, in automobiles, in kitchen utensils, in landscaping, and in all art products. The teacher must relate the one to the other.

The Teacher of Science

The greatest contribution that this area may make to the leisure objective lies in the field of hobbies, those recreational activities in which pupils engage while in school and which many of them carry on as adults. From biology we have care of pets, gardening, floriculture, landscaping, camping, hiking, aquariums, herbariums, and reading. Reading in a science field is something to which all the sciences can contribute. Photography, "ham" radio, music, movies, and all kinds of electric gadgets like trains come from physics. Chemistry leads to home chemistry sets, amateur analyses of chemical products used in the home, ceramics, and plastics.

There are elements of beauty attendant upon all the sciences. Flower arrangements and color combinations, a well-laid out garden, the composition of a scene to be photographed, and the relationships of colors to the senses are to be considered as important contributions to this objective.

The Teacher of Health and Physical Education

Boys and girls, men and women, will spend a large part of their lives as participants in outdoor games of some kind or as spectators at large sports spectacles. There can be much carry-over to life activities if such games and sports as softball, golf, tennis, swimming, badminton, croquet, quoits, archery, and handball are taught as a part of the regular curricular offerings in physical education classes. Intramural participation in basketball, baseball, football, boxing, and wrestling will make for more intelligent spectators at sports events, because the spectator will understand some of the

finer points of the activity and thereby derive greater pleasure from witnessing it. *Learning to keep score in many games and sports also needs to be taught.*

When we consider what may be done on the aesthetic side we find some wonderful opportunities. A fine-appearing body is something of which to be proud and something to admire. Posture, diet, and movement are factors which must be understood and practiced in order to achieve the body beautiful. Girls, especially, need to learn how to walk gracefully. Men should, too, for that matter. In dancing, solo dancing, interpretive dancing, square dancing, folk dancing, ballroom dancing—just think of the emphasis given by all these forms of dancing to beauty in motion. Nor should we overlook the appeal made to our senses by the exact and precise execution of all forms of gymnastic exercises. Even in mass performances there is beauty when all do the same stunt in unison and to the same degree.

Teachers of Practical Arts

Travel is one of today's common forms of recreation. Teachers of geography have the opportunity to discuss the main highways of transportation and the recreational areas of the various countries of the world. Teachers of the language arts may see to it that the shrines of famous authors, the locale of the plots of famous stories, and the noted libraries of our country may be so treated as to become the vacation goals of their students. But the teacher who probably has the best chance to present the recreational values of travel is the teacher of business. Under the topic of transportation, great interest might be aroused in planning trips to points of historic or aesthetic value. Road maps, timetables, hotel and motel accommodations, eating establishments, and the particular values that the trip should bring are topics that could prove to be extremely interesting. The results of such studies might be determining factors as to where the family might spend its vacation this year.

In business, emphasis can also be placed on the aesthetic contributions of the area. An attractive, neat page in typing, filing systems kept in perfect order, phototyping, typing attractive programs, writing a neat hand, and good grooming can all be featured.

In homemaking we find much said on the subject of so ordering

the routine duties of the home that there is much time for leisure. Although many homes have electric or gas ranges, an electric refrigerator, a mechanical dishwasher, a garbage disposal unit, an electric mixer, a toaster, an electric washing machine, and an ironer, not all homes possess all of these, and some of them possess few, if any. What is important to learn is the most efficient and thorough way in which to do a job, whether it be cooking, dishwashing, bedmaking, housecleaning, washing, ironing, or mending, and then to suggest ways in which such leisure time as is available may best be used—books and magazines to read, radio programs to listen to, or hobbies to indulge in, such as knitting, crocheting, quilting, or embroidery.

Today we hear and read of the way in which art and beauty have taken over the home. Color and design play an important part in kitchen utensils and all home furnishings. It isn't sufficient, any more, to have a knife that will cut. It must be shaped just so, and the color of the handle must match the general color scheme of the kitchen. There is certainly a charm about a well-appointed home that ought to bring to its occupants and guests a feeling of well-being. Even a meal has its contribution to make. A table tastily decorated with china, glassware, cutlery, flowers, and a colorful combination of meat, vegetables, and accessories can be a thing of beauty and a joy to be remembered. Glamor is nothing else than emphasis on the aesthetic. This means that every girl needs to learn just what kind of clothes, make-up, and accessories are most suitable to her particular physique and personality.

In the shop, boys can learn many things that can serve to occupy their leisure time at home. One of the most effective is how to organize their own home shops in cellar or garage, if either is available. This activity, like gardening, can become one of the most worth-while hobbies that a man can pursue. To come home from factory or office and make or repair something in the shop, or with such tools as are available, can go a long way to relieve the tension built up on the job. But in the making, remodeling, or finishing of an article there is also the element of the aesthetic that must receive attention. The lathe, paintbrush, and sandpaper can make or mar the beauty of the object. That is why arts and crafts are so closely related to the kind of work done in the shop.

The Teachers of Fine Arts

Music and art are those areas whose chief purpose is to meet the leisure objective, both for spare time and for the aesthetic side of life. Art can lay the groundwork for some interesting and pleasurable hobbies. Art is by no means all painting, although there are some who enjoy doing work in oils, water colors, or tempera as a means of achieving the same kind of mental and emotional satisfaction as that obtained by the worker in the garden or the home shop. In fact, there can be a great deal of overlapping with the art activities taught in homemaking and in the shop. Place cards, jewelry, leathercraft, book binding, basketry, tie and dye designs, and weaving are some of the hobbies that may be taught. At the same time, of course, all the elements of artistic design and suitable color combinations will be an integral part of the instruction. In addition to the performance side of art, there is the element of understanding and appreciation to be included. This study will include the names and chief productions of the famous painters, sculptors, architects, etc. of the world, so that the individual will have a background of familiarity with the world of art.

Music has also its active and passive sides, although there is not so much active participation in musical performance after boys and girls leave school as there used to be. The reason is the tremendous increase of the listening type of music as recorded over radio, phonograph, and television. The greatest contribution, then, that music may make is to enable pupils to become familiar enough with the music of our heritage that they find in it a source of constant pleasure and enjoyment. They need to fall in love with certain tunes. They should be able to identify kinds of music, and their composers. They should be able to identify the different instruments in an orchestra. And they should, above all else, become better judges of the kinds of music to which they listen. There are standards of judgment that will determine their future aesthetic tastes in music.

The Teachers of Foreign Languages

We find here much that is common to the teaching of social studies, except that we are dealing with the culture of one particular nationality. We can read about and discuss the games, sports, and

recreational and leisure activities of the country and compare and contrast them with our own. We can learn how its people dress, their favorite colors, the architecture of their houses, churches, and public buildings, their favorite dishes, and their well-known writers, artists, musicians, and actors, and the outstanding works of each. In all instances it is desirable to try to find out the aesthetic standards of taste that have been responsible for the development of the various art forms of the people whose language is being studied. It might also be well for the pupils if they took pride in developing the ability to pronounce and read well the foreign language.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. Analyze your own activities for a week so as to reveal to yourself how much leisure you have and how you spend it.
2. What examples can you give of the various ways in which your secondary school contributed to (a) your enjoyment of leisure, (b) your enjoyment of the beautiful?
3. What opportunities does your college or university offer in the way of cultural opportunities? Make a calendar of such events and evaluate them in terms of their value to the students.
4. Enumerate and evaluate the civic recreational opportunities in your home community.
5. Develop a score card for evaluating radio or television programs: (a) musical; (b) dramatic; (c) comedy.
6. Compare and evaluate a true classic comic with the original.
7. Evaluate the commercial recreational centers in your college or university town.
8. What organizations in your community are active in the promotion of so-called cultural activities, as in the fields of music, art, drama, horticulture, and literature?
9. Make a list of the state parks, literary and historical shrines, recreational areas, and similar points of real interest in your state.

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Education for Social Living

MAN is a social being." As such he finds it necessary to set certain restrictions upon himself with respect to his social behavior. Perhaps "restrictions" is not the most descriptive word to use. Rules and regulations might be better terms. What we mean is that he finds that neither he nor anyone else in his group can be solo or grandstand players in the game of life. They must form a pact of some sort that sets out a regimen of behavior, adherence to which marks an individual as a believer, and violation of which singles him out as a nonconformist or even an outcast. At first, of course, any behavior standards arise as a result of a felt need. Someone has displayed the ill grace to commit an act that is contrary to "the way we act." We don't like it. So we take action to prevent its recurrence by setting up a new regulation.

Every tribe, every group, every nation has by such means developed what are known as its *mores*. This word is the plural of the Latin *mos*, whose most obvious translation is "custom." Our adjective "moral" is one of its derivations. *Mores*, then, are the bundle of customs or methods of behavior that are the directive social forces that identify each group. And "morality" is the attitude implanted in the group that indicates its reaction to its own *mores*. With the passage of time these moral attitudes become so characteristically a means of identification of the group that they form its traditions. We have the culmination of the crystallization of these traditions in the revival hymn, "If it's good enough for Father, it is good enough for me."

The familiar adage, "Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it," is the epitome of society's constant struggle to prepare each generation to succeed its progenitors. In fact, we can sum up every single attempt by all peoples in every age and in every clime to prepare their offspring to succeed them. The generic term for such efforts is citizenship. So, when we talk about preparing the younger generation to assume the duties and responsibilities of citizenship, all of us are talking the same language. If we differ in any respect, it is in the means that we employ to achieve our goal. Some believe in such complete restriction of the induction process that the experience becomes formally ritualistic—so many steps forward and so many obliquely.

Some modernists believe so intensely in the preëminence of the individual that they would abandon all restrictions or requirements. And there are others who put their faith in a judicious balance between these opposing points of view. Their opinion is that, so long as an individual finds himself, through no volition on his part, a member of a certain group, this group has the right to impose upon this individual its code of moral and spiritual values to which he must conform so long as he desires to remain a member of the group. Furthermore, his group is willing to allow him certain freedoms in the conduct of his personal affairs consonant with such of his needs and interests that do not conflict with the mores of the group. If it is necessary, according to the dictates of the group, that his head must be shaved and cut in a certain fashion, then he must shave and cut his hair in that fashion. Any other style of haircut would single him out as a subversive. If the regulation is that he must memorize the Koran, then he must memorize the Koran. If the law says that he must study the state and federal constitutions, then he must study the state and federal constitutions.

The more primitive in ethnological development we find the group, just that much more restrictive are its "musts" and its "don'ts." The more authoritarian or totalitarian the organization of a society is, just that much less freedom is allowed the individual. Complete freedom from restraint of any kind is advocated only by those who have rebelled completely against a life hedged in by tabus. When a large enough number has found common cause in a desire for complete freedom, they have organized some utopian scheme of broth-

erly love, only to have their house of cards topple over when assailed by the selfishness, greed, imperiousness, and undisciplined action of its members. Today we find advocates of extreme individualism among some interpreters of a psychology that sets off the supremacy of the individual over against that of the state. The word "don't" isn't in their vocabulary. They seem to prefer anarchy to any sort of imposed order.¹

It is only in what we like to think of as the more advanced forms of social organization, in which elements of democracy are to be found, that we observe a combination of restriction and freedom. Democracy—the rule of the people! Democracy—the voice of the people! Democracy—the will of the people! Naturally, since there are, in the kind of democracy in which we believe, no set formulas for social behavior, it is impossible to set up any standards to which all must adhere under penalty of running afoul of the law. That is why we deem it our privilege to disagree with each other in the way each of us practices his theory or theories of democracy. And so, the intangible possessions that we cherish most are freedom of thought and freedom of expression.² In order to preserve these freedoms we go to almost any length to tolerate the practice and expression of ideas that don't coincide with our own. In our idealistic moments we echo the statement attributed to Voltaire, "I don't agree with a thing you say, but I'll defend with my life your right to say it."

Responsibilities of the Home

For each of us life and living have their beginnings in the home. That is such a simple statement to make when we use the term "home" generically. The truth is that homes differ as much as do individuals. There are, according to our standards, good homes and bad homes, cultured homes and illiterate homes, wealthy homes and poor homes, happy homes and sad homes, homes with parents and orphanages. If, as the psychologists tell us, the most important years of our lives are those that we spend at home before we go to school at the age of 5 or 6, then it behooves us to try to do our

¹ Read the article, "The Transformation," in *Time*, November 2, 1953, p. 52.

² For the opposite viewpoint read George Orwell's *1984*, published by Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1949.

best to inculcate in our adolescent youth the ideals of "worthy home membership." This objective has received major emphasis in every list produced by our educational philosophers. The problem was not so crucial in "horse and buggy" days, because the family was then a more closely knit social unit. But in these "stratospheric" days, when, in so many families, both father and mother have jobs, the situation is quite different. Children have to fend for themselves while the parents are at work, and we know that the devil finds work for idle hands to do. No stage is any worse than another. Babies and youngsters have to be placed in the care of some other person. When they are old enough to go to school they have to play around with other youngsters until one parent, at least, gets home. In high school they begin to form cliques and go around in gangs, so that they soon emancipate themselves from any parental control. One freedom has led to others until both boys and girls resent any interference in their activities.

Then there are those parents who have learned just enough psychology to give them erroneous ideas about discipline. They have been led to believe that repression of any kind is injurious to the full development of their children's souls. The result is that they let them do pretty much as they please, often to the annoyance and discomfiture of others who have dealings or connections with their offspring. It is most difficult for parents, who wish to retain a semblance of control over their children, to combat the challenge of keeping up with the Joneses. "Mary's folks let her go riding with boys in their cars. I can't see why you don't let me." It takes the exercise of a lot of wisdom and toil to maintain the home vessel on an even keel by knowing when to say "yes" and when to say an emphatic and understandable "no."

The Responsibilities of the Community

Only in the most isolated areas of our country can a family live entirely unto itself. It craves the companionship of other families. In the early pioneering days much of this craving was satisfied by the church. Weekdays were spent in toil from sunrise to sunset. On Saturday most of the family would go to town to trade and gossip. But on Sunday every body dressed up in his Sunday best and went to the particular church of his faith. When the service was

over, the parents would discuss crops, the weather, and the happenings of the week, while the young folks would lay the foundations for future "going steady," or engage in foot racing and various feats of strength. Little by little, as the urban areas increased in numbers and importance, concomitantly with improved means of transportation, a more compact form of social life came into existence. It was also more worldly and more exciting, especially where there were taverns. The farm, as families increased in size, was divided into smaller tracts, so that families lived closer to each other. The church began to wane in its influence as a community center. Clubs and fraternal organizations began to serve the needs of those who still hankered after some form of group meeting. Fraternal organizations were for men, but each had its "auxiliary" for the wives and daughters. Clubs were formed on the slightest pretext—bridge, sewing, literary, charity, dancing, and professional.

Fraternal organizations were usually on a national scale to begin with. Consequently, each local group was affiliated with a parent organization, which, of course, had to have its annual convention composed of delegates from each local group. Clubs remained more or less local in organization and control, although some of them were dissatisfied enough with their isolationism that they, too, organized on the national level.

Most of these clubs and organizations tended to be separatist in their relationships with each other. They even developed a class system of their own, so that members were chosen or came from certain social levels in the community. An analogous situation exists on college campuses with respect to the rating and respectability of the existing fraternities and sororities. But there was one cause to whose support all members of a community, urban or rural, rallied, and that was its school(s). So it is that today we find school cities separated from civil cities with respect to the control of the community's school. The members of a community feel that they bear a responsibility to the education of their children that is not quite the same as that which they bear to local, state, or national government. Furthermore, they thereby evince a desire to have education separated, so far as it is possible to do so, from politics. It is when politics seeks to enter into the administration of a community's school that organizations like the North Central Associa-

They have developed an exaggerated sense of their own value and have underestimated that of those "below" them. They are the bright young men of the age who look down upon those of less intellectual capacity and adjudge these as incapable of making wise political decisions.

Whoever claimed that political decisions were made wisely? In our discussion of immediate objectives, the importance of attitudes and emotional reactions was vehemently stressed. The claim was made that most of our actions are decided on a visceral rather than a cortical basis. We are swayed by the emotional appeal of the demagogue, by the appeal to our personal appetites, by the alluring hypnotism of cheese-cake advertisements, by the constant repetition of jingles and slogans, and by the sly innuendos that play upon our personal prejudices. For this reason we emphasized the importance of the choice of the facts and information to be passed on to our youth, which might cause them to react favorably to what would result in the best interests of the group.

Just because there are those who are ahead of the common herd in their thinking is no cause for mistrust. If the foundation has been laid by these advanced thinkers for erecting a structure of attitudes of tolerance, faith, hope, charity, and loving kindness instead of one of petty-mindedness, selfish prejudice, bias, intolerance, and hate, they can expect a corresponding reaction. If their motives are righteous, they will lead rather than push others in the direction of good social behavior. Unfortunately, some of them feel that they cannot wait for all this to happen (because it is a slow process), and so they take it upon themselves to make the necessary decisions. Of course, it exacerbates one's sense of the proper fitness of things to witness acts of chicanery and knavery in the conduct of some of our local and national elections, and yet, in the long run, it augurs better for our democratic form of government that these warts on the body politic be endured than that the freedom to fool the people be denied any of us. Can't you see that such a situation demands that we put forth every effort we can to improve conditions? Is it not then incumbent upon us, by means of the press, pulpit, lecture platform, radio, movies, television, and the classroom to present the story of our good and not-so-good achievements, to hold before us the examples of those who have had a part

in bringing us to where we are today, so as to create in those who come after us a *desire* to pattern their lives after the heroes of noble and honorable deeds?

We are especially concerned with what transpires in our schools. Our pupils come from all sorts and conditions of family life. Some of them have already been conditioned to good social behavior. They are not angels in any sense of the word, but they *are* fundamentally decent boys and girls. They do not pose a problem for us. Our job is to deal with that group that exhibits or has a tendency to exhibit moderate to strong antisocial behavior. They, equally with the other group, will become the citizens of tomorrow. They are the ones whose responsibility it is ours to lead into a more decent regard for themselves and for their country. And we can't do the job by preaching at them or by having them simply memorize facts, names, dates, and places. We must, by every contrivable means, get them to have pride in themselves through achieving something for which they have striven. We must make it possible for them to feel companionship with their fellow students. We must enlist them in coöperative citizenship projects in the school and in the community. And while we are doing all these worth-while things, let us not forget that the attitudes we are trying to instill in them now are going to be the determining factors in the ways they will react as citizens of our beloved republic.

"I repeat, that all power is a trust; that we are accountable for its exercise; that from the people and for the people all springs, and all must exist."

Education for World Citizenship

Education for citizenship is not confined in this air age to the geographical limits of any nation. It has become a *sine qua non* for the nations of the earth to work together. It is incumbent upon our schools to acquaint our pupils with the means whereby this cooperation is being effected. We cannot improve upon the statements made in a little pamphlet issued by the National Education Association. With their permission we shall quote the last half of the bulletin.

* Benjamin Disraeli, *Vivian Grey*, Book 6, chap. 7.

Young Americans, as part of their education for citizenship, should have opportunities to learn in school why their country is following a policy of international cooperation, how that policy works, and what it means to have their country a member of the U.N. and Unesco. Teaching about such things is an obligation resting upon all public schools in the United States.

In this country the source of political authority is the people. To exercise this authority wisely, the people must know well their nation and the world of which it is a part.

Those who govern America today and those who will govern it tomorrow need to know about lands and peoples and events far beyond their national boundaries. Within the life span of many now living, the American people have been thrust by circumstances into world leadership. It is a position they did not seek. This world leadership carries with it responsibilities that are as unavoidable as they are unfamiliar. These responsibilities rest on all citizens, as well as on the officers of the national government.

American schools, mindful of their duty for training citizens to exercise their sovereignty in the most powerful nation in the world, have sought to meet this need of their students by teaching them about the Constitution and laws of the United States and about the treaties and organizations through which their nation deals with other nations. Young Americans need also to know the history of mankind's efforts to attain peace among nations and the history of the many failures and the limited successes of such efforts. They need to know how people in other parts of the world live, what they wish for, what they believe. They need to know how their own lives have been made safer and richer by the things that have been done by men and women in other parts of the world. They need to know what is happening around the world today. These things the schools of this nation have taught for many years. They must continue to teach them if they are to remain true to their trust.

To encourage the teaching of such matters is one purpose of Unesco. The establishment of Unesco, however, did not change the basic character of American teaching about other nations. It did help to give American teachers and students access to more information about the rest of the world. And it has given other nations a better basis for teaching more fully and accurately about the United States. Such teaching is in harmony with Unesco's prime purpose: to enhance the world understanding of all peoples. This purpose should not be confused with the promotion of world government—a political goal which is supported by some well-known voluntary organizations, but which, by its own constitution, Unesco is

prohibited from promoting. It is important to understand the true purposes of Unesco. Failure to do so gives rise to apprehensions which, no matter how sincere, could lead the American people to defeat their own interests.

Some Americans do not accept the prevailing view that the United States will be a safer and more prosperous nation if it cooperates with other nations than if it tries to stand alone. Some of these citizens have gone so far as to demand that study of the U.N. and Unesco be deleted from the school curriculum and that certain books on international cooperation be withdrawn from school libraries. They would bar such things as school observance of U.N. Day and high school clubs devoted to study of world affairs.

It is, of course, to be expected that some citizens will disagree with the policies of their government. Full freedom for expressing such dissent is essential to the democratic process. To criticize one's government and the intergovernmental arrangements to which it is a party is the right of every citizen in a free society; to criticize constructively when one sees defects to be remedied is not only a right but also a patriotic duty.

It is entirely in order for those who disagree with prevailing policy to seek to change the policy by appealing to their representatives in Congress and to their fellow citizens. However, those who would have the schools suppress the facts of history as they relate to the U.N. and Unesco or would have the schools teach a particular point of view about these organizations are in a position that is indefensible in terms of American principles.

Those citizens who take this position start from false premises. They assume that America has no world responsibilities and world-affected interests. They assume that the minds of men should be manipulated by instruction. They assume that the United Nations and Unesco are not significant aspects of the environment in which children and youth live. They assume that the violence of their attacks can cow or mislead others into acquiescence.

The schools of America must not be diverted from their obligation to help young citizens acquire the knowledge and skill that they will need in order to use wisely the power that will increasingly accrue to them. Those who will govern America tomorrow are in the schoolrooms of America today. Teachers must continue to serve their country by equipping with essential knowledge the sovereign citizens they meet in those schoolrooms.

The people of the United States in the second half of the twentieth century need extensive acquaintance with other countries and practical

knowledge of the complex interrelations between this country and the rest of the world. Many of those relationships fall within the framework of the international organizations in which the United States maintains membership. It is highly desirable, therefore, that the American people learn to understand the United Nations, Unesco, and other U.N. agencies, their purposes and structure, their strengths and shortcomings, their records and opportunities.⁴

Moral and Spiritual Values

One of the most severe criticisms and one of the strongest challenges directed against our public schools is that they are negligent in the attention they give to moral and spiritual values. Many of these critics are numbered among those of all faiths who complain because religion is not taught in our schools. They look around at the world in which they live and see many undesirable social practices that they would like to see corrected. They assume that these practices have resulted from negligence on the part of the schools rather than their being manifestations of the social chaos that is the aftermath of two world wars.

Their immediate reaction in the way of a remedy is to introduce the teaching of religion into our public schools, assuming that the problem will thereby be solved. The matter is not so simply dealt with as that. Where religion is a matter of the state, as it is in some countries, its instruction can be introduced into the schools by fiat. Not so, in a democracy such as ours, where people of all faiths may observe their particular religious tenets as they see fit.

One of the best approaches to this problem has been handled by the Educational Policies Commission in its book, *Moral and Spiritual Values for the Public Schools*. A digest of this book has been prepared in pamphlet form, *Moral and Spiritual Values for Your Children*. With the permission of the two associations, this pamphlet is herewith reproduced.

The Task. Moral values have been shaken in our generation by two world wars, by a wasteful economic depression, by a resurgence of barbarism among supposedly civilized peoples, by social disasters fol-

⁴ Educational Policies Commission, *The United Nations, Unesco, and American Schools*, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., December, 1952, pp. 5-8.

lowing technological triumphs. Our new-found leisure has not always been accompanied by insight, by self-development, or by participation in community services. The individual is too often lost in our modern complex, large-scale industrial and governmental organizations. The changing patterns of home and family life seriously complicate the problem of developing moral and spiritual values in young people. *We must develop inner moral restraints strong enough to control impulses of greed, power and brutality.* The alternative to such restraint appears to be the rule of the strong over the weak, of the few over the many. Our children sense the insecurity and moral confusion which is troubling many adults. More than ever, they need *help in facing the complex moral decisions before them.*

What the Public Schools Can Do. The public schools can teach the moral and spiritual values which the American people wish to see in the character and conduct of their children. *They cannot do the job alone. The whole community must help.* The public schools can develop a common education based on values shared by members of all religious faiths. *They cannot create a patchwork of many religious views.* The public schools can build respect for religious freedom. *They cannot circumvent the policy of separation of church and state.* The public schools can continue their indispensable contribution to unity and common loyalties. They can give American youth of varying backgrounds a common experience from which they will derive important and lasting moral values.

The Program of the Public Schools. 1. Moral and spiritual values are of supreme importance. Your schools are sensitive to these essential values. Moral and spiritual values have the highest priority among the many claims upon the time and energy of teachers.

2. Moral values are taught at every opportunity. Values develop out of total experience, including the life of the school, home and community. The spirit of the school and the example of its teachers are basic. Your schools try to help young people develop more than strictly personal morality; they are concerned also about such broad social problems as poverty, injustice, and war. Students and teachers go beyond facts and skills to a thoughtful interpretation of their meaning. Opportunities are provided for learning values through action, discussion, and the formation of principles. School experience is related to the life of the students and the community by the use of local resources, field trips and surveys, and by helping pupils to render useful community service. Activities which bring together children of various groups develop appreciation of the diverse cul-

tures that enrich American life. Drama, debating, music, clubs and other activities sponsored by the school increase interests, improve skills, and teach lasting values. Our sports program aims to serve *all* students. It stresses comradeship, equality, and fair play. Commercializing school sports destroys these values.

3. Wholesome personal relations are cultivated. There must be time and occasion for friendly personal contacts between students and teachers. Some communities allow their children to be herded into crowded buildings, forced to use classrooms in converted cellars and hallways, assigned to successive shifts like the workers on an assembly line, and placed under the care of harried and overworked teachers. Such a community does not really care much about the moral and spiritual development of its young people.

4. Our public schools are friendly toward the different religious beliefs of their students. Teachers will allow children to refer in a natural way to religious opinions and religious practices when occasion arises.

5. Our public schools guard religious freedom and tolerance. Our laws grant every citizen the right to believe as his conscience and training dictate. Our public schools teach the meaning of this right and of other American rights and duties.

6. Our public schools teach *about* religion. Although a public school cannot teach denominational beliefs, it can teach about the important part religious faiths have played in American life, literature, art, history, current affairs, and international relations. School study about religion should not be regarded as a substitute for religious instruction by home or church.

The Acquisition of Values. Young people acquire their values in many ways. The school must, therefore, always be a partner of the home, the church, and the community. The home is the greatest single factor in forming character. The family provides the child's first experiences in human relations, in cooperation, in solving problems through reason and mutual consent, in placing group welfare before personal advantage, and in respect for individual worth. Parental standards are the ones children are most apt to adopt. Churches play a major role in moral and spiritual values. Churches and other organized institutions of religion seek to understand and teach the relation of man to God. Religion adds a unique emphasis to moral and spiritual values. The churches make their greatest contribution when they make a real difference in human conduct. *Community life* can aid or hinder the schools. Many community forces are working to refine the life of

the community and to build moral and spiritual values. But if civic officials misuse public funds, if the provision of justice is influenced by partisan politics, if parents and other citizens practice or condone dishonesty, no effort by the school is likely to make a deep impression. *New means of communication* influence children. Newspapers, magazines, books, radio, television, and motion pictures have multiplied the means of communicating ideas—both good and bad. Their effects on the values of young people are partly harmful, partly constructive, and partly neutral.

Community Cooperation. The parent-teacher organization provides a time and place for parents and teachers to discuss their common interests. The board of education is the official representative of all the people. Other citizens' groups provide voluntary cooperation between large segments of the public and the school system as a whole. In communities all over the nation, farmers, bankers, housewives, factory workers, professional men, business executives, and shopkeepers are joining to improve school conditions. In the same way, they can work together to see that their community fosters moral growth. They can do this if they remember that no society can survive without moral values and the moral and spiritual development of our young people is a *community responsibility*.²

HOW ALL TEACHERS MAY CONTRIBUTE TO THE SOCIAL LIVING OBJECTIVE

Every class that a teacher meets is a social unit. Even though the pupils may not be the same ones in any other group, so far as a particular class is concerned, they are identified as English III under Miss Strannan, Mathematics I under Mr. Glower, or Homemaking V under Miss Howitts. As soon as the class roll is made up, its members meet as a unit every day during a certain period. Gradually all come to know each other, and a *we-feeling* develops. Even to the teacher, the youngsters in the group soon assume a mass individuality, in that he begins to recognize the collective group and the pupils who compose it. A feeling of rapport springs up between him and them, so that the *we-feeling* belongs to both.

If he is a teacher who believes in the theory of transfer, whereby, in order to practice democracy in life, it is necessary to provide

² Published by the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D.C., 1952.

manifestations of it in the classroom, he will see to it that his pupils respect him to the extent that there is orderly behavior in the room. This orderliness, however, is not the result of dictatorial fiat. It comes because it is the proper thing to do. The very atmosphere of the classroom, then, is the first step in the practice of social living. It can be near-anarchy, where there is utter disregard of the rights of others. Such a state of affairs usually occurs because the teacher has been "too easy" or because he has been afraid to exercise his authority. In either case, any kind of learning, so far as the subject is concerned, is practically nil. On the other hand, the teacher can be a tyrant to the extent that his pupils fear him. If they do learn anything, it is because they have to, not because they want to.

What is needed is coöperation. The teacher realizes that his pupils need stimulation and motivation. If he will provide these, he can expect that they will come halfway to meet him. There are several things that he can do to win this coöperation. One of the simplest steps is to have committees with various tasks to perform, housekeeping to supervise the cleanliness of the classroom, health to look after ventilation, heating, and lighting, bulletin board to arrange for periodic displays of pertinent materials on the classroom bulletin board, library to obtain the necessary references and audio-visual materials for class study or discussion, and hospitality to see that any visitors to the class are hospitably treated. The use of panel discussion, or any other phase of group dynamics, also serves to bring the members of the class together. Different viewpoints can be expressed. Pupils can learn to be tolerant of the views of others. The simple elements of parliamentary procedure can be learned and practiced. If the teacher hesitates to begin too soon with committee activity, he can use monitors in its place. Gradually, however, he should rely more on the group method, rather than on individuals.

One attempt to place the practice of citizenship on a "do-it" rather than a "learn-it" basis is the Citizenship Education Project, sponsored by Teachers College, Columbia University.

The primary function of schools is the development of good citizens. America will remain free and strong only so long as the privileges and duties of citizenship are freely and widely exercised. Too often, they are not exercised. We even fail to vote. With each personal surrender of a

right or obligation, freedom is weakened. This situation results in fact from a lack of civic "know-how" which is "the ability to solve our local and national problems by fair, democratic processes." This means getting the facts, making the facts known, arousing interest in them, and bringing about an informed decision. C.E.P.'s primary aim is to help teachers *improve* citizenship education. It suggests practical ways for students to gain actual experience in practicing citizenship. . . . In one eastern city, a class of high school students worked with all political parties to help get out the vote in a municipal election. . . . In one city, students tackled the problem of downtown traffic congestion. . . . Teachers are encouraged to choose practices which deal with real situations of interest and importance, that demand active exercise of civic skill. *Science* students deal with real materials in the laboratory so that through experiment they may better grasp the working of scientific laws. Similarly, students of citizenship employ the school or community and their problems as the laboratory in which they may better grasp the principles governing our way of life. . . . These projects do not interfere with the teaching of basic subjects. . . . They do not replace basic school subjects but are usually integrated with them—civics, history, English, current problems, science, and others.⁹

The Teacher of English

Much of what is read, especially in fiction and drama, deals with people, what kind they are, what they do, and how they react to each other. Love stories treat of romance as a prelude to the foundation of a home. Many of them portray good and bad examples of family life. There are stories of boys and girls, their friendships, their families, their problems with each other, with their parents, with school, and with the elders of the community. Biography and autobiography reveal the struggles and adjustments men and women have had to make in order to succeed. Their relationship to their environment and how they have made it serve their purpose

⁹ *Answering Your Questions About the Citizenship Education Project*, Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, pp. 3, 4, 5; *Citizenship in Action*, published quarterly by Teachers College, Columbia University, New York; *Improving Citizenship Education*, Policies and Procedures of the Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1952; Elizabeth Fagg, "Bold New Program in Our Schools," *The Rotarian*, August, 1953, condensed in *Reader's Digest*, August, 1953; *Premises of American Liberty*, Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1952.

can point the way to others as to how to solve their own problems. So much of nonfiction prose deals with the social and political conditions of the past and present that pupils can be encouraged by the teacher of English to do much of their reading in these areas.

Communication and its means of operation are at the basis of all social life and relationships. In order to make ourselves understood to others and to be understood by them we must use the language forms of our political and social environment. What is important to learn is how to speak and write so that our own thoughts are clearly comprehended. Language forms are a convention. Sometimes teachers lay more stress on trying to get all pupils to use the forms of literary convention, which most of them will actually never use in real life activities, than they do on the clear expression of thought. Discussion and conversation in class can be so planned and conducted as to put the pupils at ease in relationship to each other. Since conversation is one of the main activities in social living, the principles of courtesy, tolerance, and give-and-take must be inculcated. Discussion, whether formal or informal, should adhere to the commonly followed rules of parliamentary procedure. Topics for discussion can deal with all sorts of social themes—home and family activities, the things that are transpiring in the life of the community at large, and the conduct and obligations of citizenship. How all these areas are reproduced in the life of the school can be demonstrated, as well as their relationship to carry-over values. The same topics and themes may well serve as a basis for projects in writing, particularly if they are produced in the form of letters of a serious nature.

The Teacher of Social Studies

Every subject field taught in the secondary school has at least one objective toward whose achievement it is peculiarly adapted. Social studies is that area whose prime purpose is to assist in furthering the improvement of social living. Every phase of it, history, geography, sociology, economics, political science, is concerned with the story of man throughout all the ages of recorded time—his attempts to improve his lot as a social being, his rise from cave-man days through barbarism and savagery to what we call civilization, the evolution of the family from nomadic to agricultural to

water, navigation, trade routes, minerals, fertility, and strategic importance.

The Teacher of Mathematics

One of the greatest problems faced by the teacher of mathematics is that of honest work. This is an area in which, all too often, there seems to be no relationship between the content of the course and its application to life activity of any sort. Consequently, the practice has developed of getting the answer to a problem or exercise any old way, just so you get it. Pupils, then, copy from each other and hand in the work as their own. Homework is especially conducive to dishonesty. To insure that more effort is put forth by the pupils themselves, all the work should be done under the direction of the teacher during class time. There are many occasions on which pupils should be not only allowed but encouraged to work together in solving their problems. Then, when they have successfully completed the task, the results are "theirs."

There is content of a mathematical nature that deals with this objective, such as: taxes and their social uses, the costs of various community and governmental agencies like education, the police force, parks, the library, the highway department, institutions for the handicapped, public welfare, and the conservation department. Much that concerns our social activities is subject to argumentation. One of the necessary attributes of any argument is the ability to present a point of view logically. Now geometry is one science that deals with proof and the use of logic. It is possible for the teacher to show how the logical proof of geometry can be transferred to problems that are of a social nature.

The Teacher of Science

Much of what we call our high standard of living is the product of the research laboratories of the scientists. In turn, these inventions become part of the content of our courses in science. It becomes the obligation of the teacher of science to show the relationship to and effect upon society of these contributions of science. Conservation is the basis of our survival. Pupils must be made to realize the part that each plays in his neighborhood, his city, his state, and his country in the passage and enforcement of laws that

will protect fish, bird, and animal life, that will conserve our vast mineral resources, and that will reduce erosion in field and forest. Transportation provides the instruments of social construction and communication via water, land, and air. Science has played a dominating part in war in the development of instruments of social destruction. Can we teach our boys and girls to demand that governments turn their swords into ploughshares?

Suitable and appropriate topics that relate to the social living objective are: the theory of evolution, the laws of heredity, man's relationship to plant and animal life, the influence of environment on the history of mankind, race differences and tolerance, the use of insecticides as part of conservation, and drives against those diseases and ailments that reduce our social potential. It may not be out of the way to discuss observation of game laws and sportsmanship in fishing and hunting.

The Teacher of Health and Physical Education

In this area there are group and individual activities, but what we are largely concerned with are the group activities, in which the individual plays an integral part. One of the most important things to learn in team play is the necessity of working for the best interests of the group. If the infield falls down in backing up the pitcher, he can't bear the brunt of the whole defense himself. Even in tennis doubles, each partner has to learn not to encroach on the other's territory. You know what an aggravation it is to have him "hog" the whole court. In football, team play is a "must." No ball carrier can get far if the linesmen and backs have not blocked out the opposition. "Grandstanding" may appeal to some emotionalized spectators, but it doesn't lead to coöperation among the members of a team.

Then there's the question of fair play and sportsmanship. Take such games as golf, tennis, badminton, and handball. Except in tournament competition, they are played without umpires and referees. Each player has to be his own umpire in calling fouls on himself and in keeping score. Someone has said, "If you want to learn a chap, get him to play a game with you. If he has any mean, underhanded streaks in him, they will come out when he has to decide whether he has committed a foul or not." On the part of the

spectator there is also a display of the presence or absence of good sportsmanship. That is why a knowledge of the rules of the game gained from participation in it in school days may make for a more understanding spectator. Both on the side of the spectator and that of the participant respect for authority in yielding to the umpire's decisions should be developed.

The Teachers of Practical Arts

In all phases of business education honesty must be stressed. This means teaching honesty in keeping books (a balance sheet is a test of honesty), being frank to admit mistakes and not cover them up, such as erasures in typing, and doing one's own work in arithmetic, just as in mathematics. In business law we learn the place of law and the courts in society and some of the pitfalls to avoid. In communication we should learn the proper use of the telephone. The making of budgets may have its transfer to home budget making. Commercial geography teaches the interdependence of all peoples on each other. The course in junior business practice deals with so many activities of a social nature that it is almost a social studies course in itself.

The area of homemaking deals primarily with suggestions for the improvement of family life. The time was when about all that was taught was cooking and sewing. Today a great deal of attention is paid to those elements that should contribute to a happier home—child care, home furnishings, family duties and responsibilities, and the home in the community. Coöperation is taught in the classes as girls work together in the planning and execution of their projects.

Home and family living is one of the areas that is receiving a great deal of attention these days. It is no longer considered a subject peculiarly associated with the education of girls. As an integral part of the program for life adjustment education it is handled in English classes, social studies classes, and in classes in the practical arts, but especially in the area of homemaking. The tendency is to organize a course for both boys and girls.

Home economics courses in how to live more effectively have been conducted for years. Originally, such courses were exclusively for girls, but

increasing demands from boys caused many schools to expand home economics programs to meet their special needs. . . . The reasons such courses were organized reflected the life needs of the community. Specific needs varied from place to place across the country, but all were related to the one great theme of getting along together in the home and community: *Getting along with individuals—parents, brothers, sisters, husbands, or wife—and learning a pattern of democratic home living that can be carried into more remote relationships of community, state, national, and world living.*[†]

The shop teacher has foremen, superintendents, and committees to attend to the various details necessary to the orderly running of the shop. Good housekeeping is essential. Care of machinery enables others to use it. Many projects carried on are related to work in the home.

Teachers of the Fine Arts

Mention has been made, from the aesthetic angle, of the art and architecture of different periods and different peoples. There are also the social implications and applications of art as an expression of the corporate soul of a community or a period. There are the characteristic designs or motifs that identify societal groups, e.g., the swastika of India, the coverlet patterns of the Kentucky mountaineers, the plaids of Scotland, the totem poles of Indian tribes. It is surprising how much one may get in the way of a feeling for a possible better understanding of a particular group because of this acquaintanceship. To make a figurine of a Mexican peon, as he sprawls in the shade with his sombrero pulled down over his eyes, one must know something of the life and characteristics of the peon.

The art department also contributes to and cooperates with all kinds of school and community drives in the making of posters whose purpose is to enlist the support of all for a common cause.

"Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast." Here is one agency that can be a tremendously unifying or disruptive force. Think of its effects upon a group. When the *Star-Spangled Banner*

[†] *Homemaking and Family Living*, Vocational Div. Bull. 245, Home Economics Education Series 27, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., p. 1.

unpredictable impulses, his selfishness. He is torn between a need for gregariousness and a susceptibility to greediness.

In primitive society, the struggle between greed and gregariousness is taken care of by the environment; when the specter of starvation looks a community in the face every day—as with the Eskimos or the African hunting tribes—the pure need for self-preservation pushes society to the cooperative completion of its daily tasks. But in an advanced community, the pressure of the environment is lacking. In a community where half or more of the population never touches the tilled earth, enters the mines, keeps cattle, or builds with its hands, the perpetuation of the human animal becomes a remarkable social feat.

So remarkable, in fact, that society's existence hangs by a hair. A modern community is at the mercy of a thousand dangers; if its farmers should fail to plant enough crops, if its railroad men should take it into their heads to become bookkeepers or its bookkeepers should decide to become railroad men; if too few should offer their services as miners, puddlers of steel, candidates for engineering degrees—in a word, if any of a thousand intertwined tasks of society should fail to get done—industrial life should soon become hopelessly disorganized. Every day the community faces the possibility of a breakdown—not from the forces of nature, but from sheer human unpredictability.¹

It is this type of economic world that today's citizen faces. His ability or inability to adjust himself to its finely balanced mechanism will determine the extent to which he does or does not become an economic misfit. As a complete misfit he becomes a down-and-outer. As a partial misfit he is constantly teetering on the brink of financial bankruptcy.² The dazzling allurements of obtaining a lot for a little hides from him the mathematical morass into which an accumulation of one "little" after another will lead him. Of course if we are to look upon ourselves as predatory birds of prey, each trying to gouge his neighbor for every cent he can get out of him, this thing we call consumer education just doesn't enter the picture. We should, then, according to this philosophy, feel no pity for the guy who is taken in by a slick and fraudulent sales talk. It's just his misfortune that he was so gullible as not to see through the other fellow's tricks.

¹ Reprinted from *The Worldly Philosophers* by permission of Simon and Schuster, Publishers. Copyright, 1953, by Robert L. Heilbroner.

² Josephine Lawrence, *If I Had Four Apples*, Frederick A. Stokes Company, Philadelphia, 1935.

A more somber view of the situation, however, is presented where a group, not an individual, tries to advance its own interests at the expense of all other groups. They would paraphrase the famous saying attributed to a former railroad magnate by exclaiming, "The consumer be damned!" or, "Let's get all we can while the going's good." Little do they reckon on the havoc that this selfish attitude of theirs may wreak on their fellows, who are bound to suffer because of the resultant hardships forced upon them. And then what squawks they bellow forth when some other vested interest group beats them to the draw on some other issue! Somehow they don't enjoy having the tables turned on them.

There's another saying that presents a more wholesomely social point of view, "Live and let live." At the same time that we try to advance of our own interests, we do so with due consideration for the welfare of the other fellow. This means that we do not try to oversell our own product, nor do we intend to pay more than its fair worth for the product of someone else. The name given to our preparation to adjust to this economic situation is consumer education.

Consumer Education

H. G. Wells has said that "civilization is a race between catastrophe and education." Catastrophe may result from internecine strife or it may come about from economic bankruptcy. We are at present interested in taking steps to avoid the latter eventuality. We ask ourselves if it is possible to prepare secondary youth to go forth into the economic world and so conduct their financial affairs that the end of each year finds their accounts in the black rather than in the red. Being in debt is not synonymous with being in the red if all necessary obligations are being met on time, i.e., if we don't have to rob Peter to pay Paul. Consumer education has for one of its main purposes helping an individual to calculate for himself and his family a balanced budget.

A Balanced Budget

The most important item about a balanced budget is that the person involved learns that he must needs get along with what he has. It is this keeping up with the Joneses theory that causes more

financial headaches and worries than any one other factor. We should learn that, in the ordinary course of events, the time will come when we can have some of the things that others have and that we do not. We can't expect, if we start out in life on our own, to be able to acquire a Cadillac, a mansion, and a mink coat right away. If it's transportation, housing, and protection from the weather that we need, we may well have to satisfy ourselves with a second-hand car, a two-room apartment, and a cloth coat. And we can probably be the happier in these possessions because we know that their purchase is within our means. Let us, by all means, avoid cultivating a champagne appetite on a beer income. Love in a cottage may be more enriching than a marriage of convenience in a palace.

In addition to teaching the ways to balance a budget, consumer education is concerned with the problems of installment buying, savings or thrift, quality and price, and managing a home. Installment buying and savings are intimately tied up with producing a balanced budget. It is so easy to succumb to the catch phrase of "five dollars down and five dollars a week." At first, it's very simple. Sure, you can afford it. That five dollars a week isn't going to make much of an inroad upon the budget. True. But when once you have yielded, and the temptation comes upon you a second time, it's so easy to convince yourself that you can afford to do it again. And so it goes. There comes the third time, then the fourth, etc., until you have gotten yourself into such a financial hole that you can't see your way out. Another cliché informs us that "Rome wasn't built in a day." How about postponing some of these purchases until you have the ready cash in hand, because you have learned, in school or elsewhere, that you thereby save yourself the interest you have to pay for the privilege of buying on the installment plan? This brings us to our next item, thrift.

Thrift

There exists an ephemeral philosophy that "you can't take it with you," which is in line with the admonition, "eat, drink, and be merry, for tomorrow we die." It's such a tempting suggestion, with all its allure to live in the present only and to forget about the morrow. But then there's the advice given to the grasshopper, "Go to

the ant, thou sluggard, consider her ways and be wise." If life were a short-term affair, it probably wouldn't be so necessary for us to plan for a distant tomorrow, but, with the life span becoming increasingly longer, some heed should be given to ways and means to provide for our old age. And yet, it isn't just old age that needs to be considered. There are those little luxuries, to which we referred above, the possession of which would provide an added fillip to our lives, and that might be ours if we had saved up for the purpose. Consumer education should instruct us as to how we can keep our cake and eat it, meaning that there are ways we can learn to set aside money that will, if we just school ourselves to wait long enough, provide us both with added luxuries and greater security in our old age.

Any form of savings would assist us to achieve our goal. Christmas savings clubs afford us a more immediate means of buying what we want. The Bond-a-Month plan provides an investment feature not inherent in the Christmas savings plan. Its maximum return must await the elapse of 10 years. A voluntary savings account meets the needs of those who have sufficient stamina to set aside a certain sum regularly. Life insurance policies are an ever present help in time of trouble, because they not only form a reserve against which loans can be made, but they also are a godsend to those who survive. A life policy is, other than term, the cheapest to take out. Next comes the 20-payment type, which permits one to pay up the policy during his most active years. The endowment is the most expensive, but it does give one the satisfaction, if the policy matures during his lifetime, of being able to use the money for special needs. The Morris plan, building and loan associations, and purchasing a home are other safe and sane methods of building up a surplus.

High Quality—Low Price

It is in this area that the school can make a big contribution to consumer education. Competition for the sale of similar products has resulted in some extraordinary high-powered salesmanship and advertising. Such fulsome praise as is meted out to boost a certain product oftentimes oversteps the bounds of truth and even of credulity. Nevertheless, there are sufficiently large numbers who fall

a generation that is the product of our schools is to learn some of the lessons of efficient thrift as a safeguard for their future, their teachers must be made aware of some of the ways in which these lessons may be taught. Let us consider first what it is that all may do, irrespective of their specialities. Good housekeeping is something that seems a rather simple thing to suggest. What possible connection can it have with our objective? Because it is related to the opposite of waste, waste in materials as well as waste in time. Pupils can save in the amount of paper they use, in the way they sharpen their pencils, and in the way they use any of their personal property. Whenever they have any paper to throw away, have them put it in the wastebasket, where it belongs, not on the floor, either in the classroom or in the corridors. The custodian will be saved that much in time and effort. Don't let coke bottles lie around for somebody else to pick up.

Then there's the question of books, whether they are rented or purchased. Some schools require the use of book covers in order to protect the covers. But the general treatment accorded textbooks is one of the illustrations of the amazing disregard that we are fostering toward property rights. Carelessness that borders on vandalism is revealed at the close of the school year when rental books are returned to the school bookstore. Isn't it possible to teach boys and girls that a book is a precious thing, whose care on their part will make it possible for others to enjoy its use? Possibly, if teachers would insist upon the use of notebooks in which to record assignments, etc., the temptation to write these assignments and other dates in the textbook might be obviated. In case the book is personally owned, there should be instilled in the pupil just as great a feeling of pride in its possession as if it were a dress or a suit.

Treatment of furniture is another item. Here the school may be partly to blame. If desks and armchairs are refinished and kept looking bright and shining as often as needed, then there will not be as great a temptation to carve "hearts and flowers" on them as when they are allowed to get into a run-down condition. Then there is the care of the grounds surrounding the school: Litter of any kind should not be permitted to be thrown around. At basketball games, coke bottles, drinking cups, or candy bar and chewing gum wrappers should be placed in receptacles for that purpose.

In practically all classrooms there is a certain amount of equip-

ment that is used by the pupils. Of course, the amount and kind of use are determined by the nature of the subject. The life of the equipment is dependent upon its treatment. Definite instruction in its use and care should be given as often as necessary in order to make them a habit.

One area that is a specialty in itself but that does concern everybody in the school is the cafeteria. What has previously been stated concerning the treatment of equipment applies equally here. But what is more important with respect to consumer education is the manner in which pupils do or do not eat what is on their trays. To see the waste of good food that is the common practice in American secondary school lunchrooms, and then to realize the hunger plight in which school children abroad find themselves causes one to marvel at the depth of our utter disregard for the conservation of food. The experience of the armed services in World War II was a revelation as to the eating habits of the enlisted man. The waste was so tremendous that orders had to be issued that no man would take on his plate more than he expected to eat and that he would eat what was on his plate. The same rules should be enforced in the school lunchroom or cafeteria. Even where but one menu is served, the pupil should learn to say, "Please don't give me any of that today." And then the doctrine of the clean platter should be enforced.

Much, if not all, that has been discussed might well come under the jurisdiction of the student council. All the suggestions made are the concern of the whole school. Teachers cannot be expected to do all the necessary supervision. A large part of the burden will have to be shifted to the shoulders of the pupils themselves. Theirs is the responsibility to develop good citizenship in the school. Consumer education is an important phase of good citizenship. But it must be taught, not as an end in itself, but as a preparation for the control of individual and group expenditures that will result in solvency or bankruptcy.

Since the part that all teachers play in the guidance program receives special treatment in the following chapter, suggestions as to its handling will not be included at this point.

The Teacher of English

There are many, many occasions that arise in the reading of fiction and nonfiction prose, wherein attention may be called to the

a generation that is the product of our schools is to learn some of the lessons of efficient thrift as a safeguard for their future, their teachers must be made aware of some of the ways in which these lessons may be taught. Let us consider first what it is that all may do, irrespective of their specialities. Good housekeeping is something that seems a rather simple thing to suggest. What possible connection can it have with our objective? Because it is related to the opposite of waste, waste in materials as well as waste in time. Pupils can save in the amount of paper they use, in the way they sharpen their pencils, and in the way they use any of their personal property. Whenever they have any paper to throw away, have them put it in the wastebasket, where it belongs, not on the floor, either in the classroom or in the corridors. The custodian will be saved that much in time and effort. Don't let coke bottles lie around for somebody else to pick up.

Then there's the question of books, whether they are rented or purchased. Some schools require the use of book covers in order to protect the covers. But the general treatment accorded textbooks is one of the illustrations of the amazing disregard that we are fostering toward property rights. Carelessness that borders on vandalism is revealed at the close of the school year when rental books are returned to the school bookstore. Isn't it possible to teach boys and girls that a book is a precious thing, whose care on their part will make it possible for others to enjoy its use? Possibly, if teachers would insist upon the use of notebooks in which to record assignments, etc., the temptation to write these assignments and other dates in the textbook might be obviated. In case the book is personally owned, there should be instilled in the pupil just as great a feeling of pride in its possession as if it were a dress or a suit.

Treatment of furniture is another item. Here the school may be partly to blame. If desks and armchairs are refinished and kept looking bright and shining as often as needed, then there will not be as great a temptation to carve "hearts and flowers" on them as when they are allowed to get into a run-down condition. Then there is the care of the grounds surrounding the school. Litter of any kind should not be permitted to be thrown around. At basketball games, coke bottles, drinking cups, or candy bar and chewing gum wrappers should be placed in receptacles for that purpose.

In practically all classrooms there is a certain amount of equip-

ment that is used by the pupils. Of course, the amount and kind of use are determined by the nature of the subject. The life of the equipment is dependent upon its treatment. Definite instruction in its use and care should be given as often as necessary in order to make them a habit.

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The Teacher of English

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economic conditions of the times. Carl Sandburg's poetry deals with the lot of the workingman. If no special course in consumer education is offered in the school, the department of English is the most likely candidate to take over this office. Especially helpful are the following booklets: *How to Be a Better Speaker*; *Choosing Your Career*; *Study Your Way Through School*; *Streamline Your Reading*; *Discovering Your Real Interests*; *Growing Up Socially*; *What Employers Want*; *How to Get a Job*; *Getting Job Experience*; *Your Personality and Your Job*; and *Money and You*.⁵ Three other bulletins should prove particularly helpful: *Consumer Education in Your School, a Handbook for Teachers and Administrators*;⁶ *Investing in Yourself, a Unit for High School Students*;⁷ and *Some Principles of Consumer Education at the Secondary Level*.⁸ There are many books on personality development and the wise use of time that can be made available to pupils. A good example of the latter is Arnold Bennett's *How to Live on Twenty-Four Hours a Day*.

Reading is only one phase of learning. In English classes there is always something to write or talk about. Topics on guidance and consumer education can form the basis for much of the activity carried on. Lessons can be spent on the detection of faulty logic or argument. Part of this time can be spent on the analysis of advertising, as to its appeal to reason or emotion, as well as to its make-up and honesty.

Even more practical applications are: learning to read a timetable; learning how to use the index of a book and how to find things in a catalog; learning to write proper business forms and letters;⁹ realizing the importance of usage in certain vocations and professions; learning how to give directions; and recognizing the place of oral usage, especially for guidance toward teaching, preaching, law, salesmanship, and politics.

⁵ Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1949 and 1950.

⁶ *Consumer Education Study*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, D.C., 1947.

⁷ Ruth Strang, *Consumer Education Study*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, 1945.

⁸ Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, Pamphlet 94, Washington, D.C., 1942.

⁹ It is astounding to find the number of people who do not yet know how to fold a letter on 8½ by 11 in. paper for a 4 by 6½ in. envelope.

The Teacher of Social Studies

Again we deal with the story of man. This time it is his struggle to achieve a status beyond that of a mere and meager existence, and his progress from being a jack of all trades to one of being a specialist. We note his constant effort to raise his standard of living so that he can enjoy more of the comforts of this world. We note the part that new markets and sources of goods and materials have played in exploration and colonization. The development of trade and industry, the growth of the labor movement, and the struggle between capital and labor are necessary studies for a better understanding of this objective.

Other topics that may well be treated and discussed are: wars as economic struggles and the after effects upon the economic life of a nation; import and excise duties and the standard of living; the various forms of taxes and their bearing upon personal income; various forms of investment, especially government securities; unemployment insurance; social security and old-age pensions; various forms of life insurance; installment buying and loans; and inflation, or the increased cost of living. It is true that most of these topics belong in one of two courses, both on the senior level, American problems or economics; nevertheless, as the class progresses through the various stages of general or American history, they can discover how history has been affected by each of these forces.¹⁰

As to the contributions that the social studies field makes to possible future job opportunities, the teacher can point out how necessary a good background in social studies is for those who plan to become lawyers, social workers, teachers, journalists, writers, librarians, and politicians.

The Teacher of Mathematics

Consumer education is based upon computation of all kinds. The ability to deal with numbers is at the foundation of all successful efforts to judge and manipulate anything that is quantitative. Decimals, fractions, percents, and ratios are especially important. Mental

¹⁰ National Council for Social Studies, "Consumer Education and the Social Studies," *The Consumer Education Study*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, D.C., 1945.

arithmetic, approximations, aliquot parts, and short cuts play their part in better consumer education. It is especially important that pupils learn to be accurate in their mathematical operations. This means intensive and meaningful drill on those kinds of mathematical activities in which the ordinary man and woman engage. To learn how to estimate the probable amount or cost of anything will enable one to transact his business, or whatever it is, more efficiently and more economically. Mathematics classes, especially those in arithmetic, general mathematics, and algebra, can deal with many real and worth-while problems on personal, family, and governmental costs, such as keeping accounts, making out budgets, writing checks, figuring tax rates, and calculating the savings between direct loans and installment buying.¹¹

The work areas which demand more than the usual amount of mathematics are science, teaching, research, statistics, accounting, architecture, and engineering. Anyone who has any idea that he may go into one of these fields should have two types of advice: first, just what is needed and required in the way of preparatory mathematics; and second, has the individual the ability to do that type of work successfully?

The Teacher of Science

Consumer science concerns the composition of articles of every kind that contribute to our economic efficiency, because composition involves usefulness, durability, and reasonable costs. What we shall pay for a certain article and how long it will last are questions that directly concern our pocketbooks. We cannot afford to lay out good money for the replacement of articles that do not give service that is commensurate with their cost, i.e., unless we enjoy spending money just for the sheer pleasure of spending it, without giving any heed to the rainy day that is ahead. Here is a brief list of some of the products that science has made available to us and of whose qualities and uses we should have a little knowledge: rayon goods, nylons, plastics, synthetics of all kinds, drugs and medicaments, vitamins, cameras, radios, and electric appliances and gadgets. How much can we learn to repair some of these instruments ourselves?

¹¹ National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, "The Role of Mathematics in Consumer Education," *The Consumer Education Study*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, D.C., 1945.

Should we also learn when and where not it is economical for us to meddle with them? We can also learn something about comparative costs of such things as electric current, light bulbs, vacuum cleaners, dish washers, mixers, etc.¹²

Pupils who have any intentions of studying to be research science technicians, physicists, chemists, astronomers, engineers, bacteriologists, doctors, and dentists should be encouraged to take the kinds of science offered in their school that will have some bearing on the future job.

Teachers of Health and Physical Education

This department uses all kinds of equipment, much of which is purchased and used by boys and girls in their own play activities. Consequently, they should learn two things. The first concerns quality. Is it always necessary to pay top prices for everything? May there not be too much "name" equipment advertised? Wouldn't it be worth while to point out and discuss what are the requisites in a good golf ball, a tennis racket, a croquet set, or a basketball? Is it necessary that one purchase the same thing that a professional uses? Surely there are articles that a dub may use and have a lot of fun with, without going to a great deal of expense. Let us learn then the various grades and qualities of athletic equipment and supplies that we might purchase so that we may get the most for our money for the particular type of play in which we plan to engage. The second has definite relations to the cost of sports equipment, so that we may know to what extent we may participate in a particular sport. What's the cost of tennis shoes, rackets, and balls, of badminton sets, of archery sets, of ping-pong sets, of croquet sets, of softball equipment, of a baseball outfit, of a basketball, and of a swimming suit?

As spectators we need to learn the prices of tickets with respect to their location in the arena or grandstand. Can everybody sit on the 50-yard line or behind first base? Here again, as in the case of equipment, we need to learn how to compensate for the price of the ticket by certain advantages attached to the location of the seat. The use of fieldglasses may well be considered.

¹² National Science Teachers Association, "The Place of Science in the Education of the Consumer," *The Consumer Education Study*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, D.C., 1945.

Health classes, just as do science classes, may teach a great deal about consumer education in the buying and use of toilet and medical goods. Frauds and propaganda employed to advertise many articles under special trade names may be detected and analyzed both as to their scientific claims and as to their cost.

The guidance possibilities in the area of health and physical education include conservationists, recreation directors, Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. work, scouting, teaching, nursing, medicine, modeling, and professional athletics.

The Teachers of Practical Arts

This area is labeled practical because to the minds of most people it is the most closely related to the life of actual doing and earning a living. The possibilities of taking work in high school in some one of the several fields of the practical arts and getting a job are much greater than in the other secondary school fields. In the latter case it is often necessary that the aspirant for a job has to take additional work in college and professional school.

The field most closely related to our objective is that of business education. Business concerns are ready to employ high school graduates as clerks, typists, stenographers, file clerks, mimeographers, business machine operators, and bookkeepers. It is up to the school to supply demands along these lines. In order not to make the supply exceed any demand too heavily, the school needs to know what the job opportunities are and where they are. Consequently, guidance as to the choice of which line to pursue is most important. Here are two illustrations. Only those who are good in English usage should be permitted to become stenographers. Only those who are accurate in manipulation and who have quick reaction time should be permitted to become file clerks or machine operators.

From the personal standpoint, the pupil may receive much benefit to himself. He may learn to type personal business letters, how to keep books, how to make a budget, how to save money in purchasing paper, glue, staples, etc., how to judge quality, how to save money in travel, and all about banks, investments, and taxes.¹³

¹³ National Council for Business Education, "The Relation of Business Education to Consumer Education," *The Consumer Education Study*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, D.C., 1945.

The home is a business institution. The courses offered in the modern secondary school teach girls the quality, durability, and washability of textiles, the quality of home furnishings and decorations, how to read blueprints, what goes into a good, substantial house, how to make a budget, how to judge the quality of canned goods and the values of various degrees of quality, when to can and when not to can, and how to market carefully in season so as to buy the most for the least amount of money.

Guidance will open up a large field of employment to girls. The more immediately available jobs are baby sitting, waitresses, dress-makers, caterers, bakers, and homemakers. Those who will have to look forward to further preparation are nurses, dieticians, and teachers.¹⁴

Shop of the home mechanics type is especially valuable in contributing to this objective. Out-and-out vocational shop is supposed to lead directly into such jobs as automobile mechanics and semiskilled mechanical jobs, because, to advance very far in the skilled phase, it is necessary to enter upon apprenticeship training. The better shops simulate actual working conditions, so that the boy does receive good guidance in preparation for his job. But it is in the general, or home mechanics, type of shop that consumer education is really emphasized. Here the boy learns how to make and repair many of the things that are found in his home. The repair phase is especially important: mending a screen, fixing a leaky faucet, painting a room, refinishing a piece of furniture, etc. He learns not only how to do these things but also the quality and comparative costs of the tools and materials used, so that he may actually save money.

Teachers of the Fine Arts

Most of those who study music will be consumers after they leave school. They need to learn to be judges of the worth of various kinds of music, the qualities of radios, phonographs, and television sets, and the quality of the products of the various recording companies. They should have answers to such questions as what makes a record

¹⁴ "Consumer Education and Home Economics in the Secondary School," *Consumer Education Study*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, D.C., 1945.

expensive, and when it is advisable to buy a cheap record or an expensive one. Some of them may continue to play an instrument they have learned to play in school. They should be provided with information as to what is the best buy for the purpose. If they attend musical performances, should they not receive instruction as to what makes for value received—where can they sit most inexpensively both for visibility and audibility? Opera glasses serve the purpose here that field glasses do at athletic contests.

There are those pupils who would like to use their musical abilities for earning a livelihood. The possibilities are greatest in dance bands and orchestras and in teaching, but limited for radio performers, artists, composers, salesmen, and music store proprietors.

Art plays a large part in our consumer education lives. We have been so conditioned today that beauty, line, form, perspective, color, and design are directed toward eye appeal. All have their share in influencing us as to what we shall and shall not buy. "All that glitters is not gold" is a lesson that may profitably be taught in the art department. Shall I buy a reproduction or an original? What should I pay for an etching? Where can I get the most attractive party decorations for the least money? How can I learn to make artistic things for my home instead of buying them? And what can I learn as an art hobby that I may turn to profit for myself and thereby add to my income?

Guidance possibilities are commercial art, advertising, design of fabrics, carpets, and wallpaper, window dressing, painting, sculpture, architecture, and interior decorating.

The Teachers of Foreign Languages

Here we have a combination of the contributions of reading and the social studies. We can read in English or in the foreign language about the economic conditions of the people, how they conduct their business affairs, the kinds of occupations most common, the relation of rural to urban life, and the differing standards of living and their possible causes. We might learn something about their export and import trade, and, perhaps, something about their trade relations with us. We might, although it is a little "might," learn enough of the language, so that, if we should ever travel in that country, we could express ourselves and understand others in matters of buying or seeking accommodations. Other things that we might learn are:

exchange rates of money, the value of goods sold to the tourist trade, where to get the real values for our money, and how not to be overcharged.

Those who have a special flair in foreign language might be guided into such fields as interpreting, translating, teaching, secretarial work, archeology, tour conducting, salesmanship, and the consular and diplomatic services.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. For your own personal use make out a budget for this year's expenditures.
2. Describe the opportunities offered by your secondary school to teach you:
 - a. The value of money
 - b. The performance of household duties
 - c. Home repairs
 - d. Care of children
 - e. Care of your textbook
3. If possible, visit a secondary school and observe and comment on one or more of these phases of consumer education:
 - a. The treatment of waste paper and candy wrappers
 - b. The condition of lockers
 - c. The cost of supplies in the school bookstore compared with costs elsewhere
 - d. The waste or lack of waste in the lunchroom or cafeteria
4. What incidents or experiences in secondary school were influential in your continuing with your education?
5. Make a list of sources from which you may obtain consumer education information.
6. Select a unit in your specialized area and develop a lesson plan, emphasizing consumer education.
7. Do the same for possible preparation for a job.

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Extracurricular Activities

WHEN the theory of mental discipline held sway, the main job of the secondary school pupil was to come to school and recite the lessons that he was supposed to have learned. The main job of the teacher was to assign lessons and then test the ability or inability of his pupils to give back to him what they were supposed to have learned. If they succeeded, he passed them. If they failed, he flunked them.

What is important in connection with our present discussion is that the classroom was about the only common meeting ground between teacher and pupil. School life was a serious affair. There was no place for any monkey business. There was usually only one occasion during the year when anything different changed the picture, and that was when the seniors tried out for positions on the commencement program. But the commencement itself was entirely in the hands of the faculty. Another exception may be noted in the presence in some schools of a debating society, which upper classmen only were eligible to enter. These societies met on school time, so that those who had a class during this meeting period were excused. There were athletic contests in football and track, but the coaches were usually not members of the faculty. Musical organizations, dramatic performances, and publications were often under the auspices of groups of pupils who conducted their activities without any school or faculty sponsorship.

The reasons that the school adopted a hands-off policy toward

any activities that took place outside the classroom were two: one that has already been mentioned, and the other that outside agencies like the home and the church looked after the social life of boys and girls. When we realize that, in the first decade of this century, only about 15 percent of boys and girls of secondary school age were actually in a secondary school, and that this 15 percent came from upper and upper middle class families, we can understand the attitude of the school. These boys and girls did come from homes that provided the social life needed. In addition, the churches to which these same families belonged had their choirs, their young people's societies, and church festivals to supplement the social life provided in and by the home.

When the enforcement of compulsory school-age laws brought into our secondary schools boys and girls from all sorts and conditions of homes, privileged as well as underprivileged, when teachers no longer could flunk their pupils out of school with impunity, when homes were becoming negligent in providing satisfactory social activities, and when the churches were no longer playing such a prominent role in the social life of the community, then it fell to the lot of the school to provide a substitute.

Coincidental with the change in school population was an increasing change in attitude on the part of the school toward its responsibilities. The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education had called to our attention the importance of teaching boys and girls rather than just subjects. What pupils were doing and were going to do were pointed out as being the objectives that the schools should prepare them to meet. One of these objectives was concerned with the participation of boys and girls in the social activities of their milieu. No better statement of the situation has ever been expressed than in the words of Briggs: "to teach pupils to do better the desirable activities that they will perform anyway; and, second, to reveal higher types of activities and to make these both desired and to an extent possible." Among these desirable activities were practically all the things that the traditional school had neglected. Instead of allowing them to emerge and grow up like Topsy, the school became conscious of a sense of greater responsibility. It was no

¹ Thomas H. Briggs, *The Junior High School*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1920, p. 157.

longer enough just to do lesson hearing. Those activities that had previously been considered none of the school's business had now become an integral part of its program. And because this new field had been developed outside the regular curriculum of the school, it was dubbed "extracurricular activities."

There are those who object to the name, because these activities are now considered to be an essential phase of school life. They would substitute "cocurricular" or "pupil activity program" for the more commonly used term. The idea back of the substitution is that the prefix "extra," meaning "outside," no longer is an adequate description of the situation. In spite of the many objections to the use of the traditional term, it is almost universally accepted and used. Just like many other words in the English language, knave, villain, churl, jack, e.g., that began with one meaning, and as time went on, developed another, so has the term "extracurricular" come to assume a description of all that is included in an activity program. For that reason, it will be the accepted term in our discussion.

Your Relationship to the Activity Program

You might well ask: "What concern is it of mine, as a prospective teacher, to discuss the extracurricular program of the secondary school?" "I am," you will say, "preparing to be certificated in English and social studies, science and mathematics, physical education and health, etc. I am not being certificated in this thing you call extracurricular activities." That part is true. But suppose you examine the typical teacher's so-called teaching load. Do you know what you will find? It is this. Teaching classes is but one of the duties for which today's teacher is scheduled. On the schedule, or program, of studies, whatever it is called, you will find such things as study hall, homeroom, library, annual, senior class sponsor, etc., listed the same way as are English V, Social Studies II, and Biology I. This state of affairs is so universally recognized that all application blanks for teaching positions, whether from teacher placement agencies or from individual school systems, ask in what activities you yourself have participated in secondary school and college and what activities you now feel capable of sponsoring. So it is important that you anticipate some of the experiences that you are most likely to encounter with a brief survey of the field. After you have had first-hand contacts with

one or more phases of extracurricular activities, you will be ready to carry on a more exhaustive study of this area on the graduate level. In our present discussion all we can hope to do is to hit the high spots, so to speak.

The Different Areas in Extracurricular Activities

So much of the spirit of the extracurricular movement has been incorporated into the socialized classroom with its problem-pupil activities, that it is difficult, at times, to separate the two. In his public addresses, McKown has insisted that, when the essential elements of a club activity have been incorporated into a class activity, there will be no further need for the continued existence of that club. Then again, some activities that, in origin, were definitely extracurricular in character, such as glee club, band, orchestra, dramatics, debate, and publications, are now considered as much a part of the regular curriculum as the old stand-by subjects. In other words, they are scheduled the same as other classes and are given regular credit toward meeting graduation requirements. Under the standard certification plan, then, the teacher certified to teach music will handle glee club, band, and orchestra, while the teacher certified to teach the language arts will be assigned the classes in dramatics, debate, and publications. On the other hand, it is possible, although not highly probable, that, if these activities were on a purely extracurricular basis, any teacher with an interest in and love for music might direct a music activity. The same thing would be true for the other activities. In one high school, for example, a teacher of science has been, for years, the sponsor of a group called the Thespians. It is only natural, however, for a teacher to gravitate toward that activity that is close to his own teaching interests, such as the teacher of English and the English Club, the teacher of Spanish and the Spanish Club, the teacher of homemaking and the 4-H Club, etc.

Now, what different areas are traditionally associated with the field of extracurricular activities? The most common is a club of some kind, growing out of the need for extended participation not supplied in the classroom. There is the homeroom, which endeavors to continue some of the class spirit that prevails under the one-teacher setup. On a large scale, we have the student council, which is oftentimes referred to erroneously as student self-government. As-

semblies and assembly programs have long been a part of the activity movement. Debates and dramatic performances provide an opportunity for a public type of self-expression. Publications of one sort or another meet the demand for another form of self-expression. Musical organizations are considered extracurricular when they are not an integral part of the curricular offerings. Athletics is a popular type of activity, but, since it is in an area largely dominated by the principal, the coach, and the state athletic association, it does not qualify for treatment in the same manner as do the areas previously named. Last, but not least, on our list are parties, or social functions.

CLUBS

Since clubs, formal and informal, have been one of the oldest and most universal forms of extracurricular activities, they will form the first part of our presentation of the place that extracurricular activities play in the modern secondary school and of the role that you will play as a teacher. Clubs are definitely interest groups. Pupils who are studying a certain subject, such as physics, for example, are often constrained by the laboratory manual to a narrow range of projects. Several of them have become camera fiends. So, in order to further their knowledge and skill in photography, some of them organize a camera or photography club. The pupils' teacher is asked to be the sponsor. Many other clubs are developed out of similar situations in other subject fields.

Kinds of Clubs

It will be helpful for us, in our discussion of clubs, if we set up a classification of clubs, because not all clubs can be handled in the same way, nor do the same rules apply to all. First of all, we have the subject groups, such as English, mathematics, science, and shop. Honor societies include such organizations as the National Honor Society, Quill and Scroll, and Thespians. In the service group we have the Hi-Y, Blue Triangle, Campfire Girls, and Junior Red Cross. Special talent clubs are the glee club, the mandolin club, the dramatics club, and the football team. All-school organizations are homerooms, the student council, the boosters club, class organizations, and the athletic association. Among vocational clubs we find 4-H Clubs, Future Farmers of America, and Future Teachers of

America. Hobby clubs touch upon special interests, such as stamp collecting, radio, photography, chess and checkers, and film projection. Then, when we have difficulty in classifying a club under any of the above rubrics we have recourse to the miscellaneous group, how to study, know your city, and valet.

That we may get a better overview of these clubs, let us put them in outline form.

Classification of clubs

Subject—English, mathematics, science, shop

Honor—National Honor Society, Thespians, Quill and Scroll

Service—Hi-Y, Blue Triangle, Campfire Girls, Junior Red Cross

Special Talent—glee clubs, mandolin, dramatics, football

All-school—homerooms, student council, classes, athletic association

Vocational—4-H, Future Farmers, Future Teachers

Hobby—stamps, radio, photography, chess and checkers

Miscellaneous—how to study, know your city, valet

Membership in Clubs

One of the avowed purposes of extracurricular activities is to provide opportunities for boys and girls to do something of their own free will. They must take a minimum amount of classroom work in order to stay in school. Such is not the case with extracurricular activities. Pupils are permitted a choice as to what they care and do not care to enter upon. Furthermore, an aim of the activity program is to further the democratic process. By this we mean the chance that is offered pupils of all types to mingle together in a situation that they, more or less, control. So, to carry out these two principles, it is essential that the following suggestions receive careful consideration.

The universal dictum should be that membership in any club in the school should be open to any boy or girl who wishes entrance into it. A close examination of this statement will, however, reveal its failure to consider the variations that exist among clubs. In its broadest sense it would, undoubtedly, include subject, service, hobby, and miscellaneous clubs. Interest is the chief criterion in these instances. But membership in honor societies is restricted to those who must meet certain special qualifications. Special talent clubs demand certain ability to do the activity, which is tested in

tryout performances. All-school organizations usually depend upon the class to which the pupil belongs, or upon the results of an election. As is to be expected, membership in vocational clubs is reserved for those who have expressed an intention of entering upon that vocation after leaving school. The only clubs that, by their nature, can legitimately restrict the size of their membership are the honor, special talent, homeroom, class, and student council ones. All others should be open to everybody, so that, if those desiring to belong to any special club exceed a reasonable membership size, another club of the same type should be formed, provided, always, that a sponsor for the new group can be found.

Names of Clubs

Some names, such as those that identify honor societies, special talent, service, vocational, hobby, and miscellaneous, are already determined. It is in the case of subject clubs that the opportunity arises for exercising individuality in the choice of name. Just a plain mathematics club sounds too ordinary. We can dress it up by calling it The Euclidean Circle. The same thing can be done for other subject clubs. Here are a few illustrations: Bookshelf, Der deutsche Verein, Palette and Brush, Junior Chemists, Current Events, Handicraft, and Health and Happiness.

Organization and Activities

The club should be governed by a brief constitution that sets up the purpose, the qualifications for membership, the officers, their term of office and duties, election procedures, meetings, and dues. There will, of course, be a faculty sponsor who may be appointed by the faculty or selected by the group, according to the rules of the school and the nature of the organization. General practice, especially where clubs meet on school time, is to have a meeting of the club once every 2 weeks. Once a week puts too heavy a burden on the program committee, while once a month is too infrequent to keep up a sustained interest in the activity.

Club meetings offer members a wonderful chance to participate in and learn the elements of parliamentary procedure. It is not only amazing, it is astounding to discover the large numbers of men and women who are forced, after they leave the secondary school, to take part in club activities and who display such woeful ignorance

of even the simplest forms of parliamentary procedure. It is *here* that the sponsor, who may be you, can be of such help. The sponsor should insist upon each club's possessing and using a copy of *Roberts' Rules of Order*. In fact, every club might well appoint one of its members to act as parliamentarian.

The real business of the meeting, however, is that of the program, because the success or failure of a club hinges upon the character of the program. If it becomes stereotyped in nature, if only the same people participate every time, if everybody isn't given a part, interest will die, and the organization will become perfunctory and listless. No attempt will be presented here to describe various kinds of programs, because Harry C. McKown has done such an admirable job along this line.² If the program committee of any club follows the leads offered by McKown, there will be little need to repeat any programs. Let these be the principles guiding the preparation of programs: vary their nature, time them carefully, distribute participation among club members, don't make them too elaborate, but try to prepare one of them for the school assembly. One of the meetings is usually a party, but this type of activity will be discussed later.

Membership Dues

The most important thing to say in this connection is that membership dues should be kept to a minimum. Under ordinary circumstances, about the only occasion on which there will need to be any expenditures will be for such social functions as the organization may wish to schedule. It is true that a special assessment may be necessary, but such should be the case only for special occasions, such as the junior-senior party. At no time should the impression ever get abroad that membership in an organization should exclude anyone from belonging because of the size of membership fees or dues.

Limitation in Membership

Although the activity program has become a vital part of school life, we must remember that excesses here can be just as undesirable as they can be elsewhere. To safeguard the mental health of

² Harry C. McKown, *School Clubs*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1929.

the pupil, the school has set up certain restrictions as to the number of subjects that he may ordinarily carry. Capable pupils are often allowed to carry more than the average load, but experience has shown that the desirable practice is for the average pupil to carry the average load. The consensus of opinion is that a similar situation should exist with respect to participation in extracurricular activities. Where a suitable guidance program is in operation, the individual capabilities of a pupil may be taken into consideration. In other words, he may be allowed to pursue any number of activities within reason, just so long as his regular school work does not suffer and so long as his health permits. The usual procedure, however, is for a school to operate under one of two limitation systems. In the first one, all activities are classified as major or minor. A pupil may participate in only so many of each. In the other, a certain number of points is assigned to each activity, the number varying with the importance and responsibility connected with it. A pupil may participate in that number of activities whose points do not exceed a certain total.

And now, one last caution. Desirable as participation in extracurricular activities is, we must not adopt a policy of coercion. There was a time when some schools compelled all pupils to participate in some form of activity. In fact, pupils had to present a certain number of credits in activities in order to graduate. This attitude is not the prevalent one. Most educators believe that the activity program should be made so interesting, so comprehensive, and so worth while, that all pupils would want to participate. You can force a youngster to join a club, but you can't make him enjoy it. No, let the matter of joining be voluntary. The result will be a more wholesome attitude on the part of everybody, administration, faculty, and pupils.

HOMEROOM ORGANIZATIONS

In every school there has to be some way of keeping tab on the school population. Daily attendance has to be taken, announcements have to be given out, records must be kept, schedules must be made out, and report cards must be distributed. The natural arrangement is to assign a set number of pupils to meet regularly with a certain teacher in order that these details may be taken care

of. Various names have been assigned to such an arrangement. Homeroom, session room, roll room, classroom are among these names. The one most commonly used today is homeroom. That is the term that will be employed throughout our discussion.

Types of Homerooms

Homerooms vary in character from a place to go to and sit before the first bell rings to one that closely approximates a club in its organization and activities. But, whatever type it is, there has to be some method of determining who goes to what room. In very small high schools, it is sufficient to have each class assemble as a unit. *This arrangement becomes impossible when the size of the classroom is such as not to accommodate the group.* Then a division has to be effected. In order to expedite matters for the purpose of record keeping, the pupils are alphabetized. In some schools boys and girls are alphabetized separately and are assigned to separate rooms. In others, so many girls and so many boys are assigned to the same room. *In some schools, the whole student body is alphabetized and made into so many sections, with representatives from each class in the same homeroom.* In others, pupils are alphabetized by class standing. For example, let us take a seventh grade class of 120 boys and 120 girls. If 40 were the accepted size of a homeroom, we would have 6 homerooms. Boys and girls from approximately A to E would be in the first group, F to H in the second, I to L in the third, M to O in the fourth, P to S in the fifth, and T to Z in the sixth.

In many schools the homeroom is still merely an administrative device to decentralize the carrying on of the routine activities of record keeping. Pupils assigned to a particular room are expected to report to it between the warning and passing bells for first-period classes. The teacher in charge takes attendance and reads any announcements that have come from the office. Other schools, however, have taken the homeroom setup and have turned it into an adjunct to the regular educational program. Instead of meeting just for a few minutes, the group is given an extended time period, sometimes as much as a regular period. To provide for this extra time, the daily schedule has been so arranged that a similar period is inserted into the daily program. It is usually called an activity period in that

it furnishes an opportunity for most of the extracurricular activities to hold their meetings at this time. Schools vary in assigning a particular part of the day to the activity period, but a quite general custom is to place it between the last and the next to the last periods in the morning.

The activity period allows the scheduling of clubs, assembly programs, and homeroom activities during the school day, thereby making it possible for the greater number of pupils to participate. This is particularly advantageous where pupils are transported to and from school by buses that have to arrive and leave on a schedule. It also enables boys and girls who are employed after school hours to take part in activities.

Homeroom Activities

The special period, known as the homeroom period, has been developed largely as a part of the guidance program of the school. At least once a week, each homeroom group meets like any other organized group to conduct such business as concerns it and to carry on some kind of program that is connected with some phase of life and school adjustment education. That is why it is preferable to have boys and girls grouped alphabetically by classes than by the school as a whole. If it is a 6-year school, a 4-year school, a 3-year senior high school, or a 4-year junior college, the first-year groups can well study themselves in relationship to the school and all that it has to offer. Those in the graduating class will be discussing not only plans for graduation, but also plans for meeting the life problems they will face after graduation.

Another important activity is the counseling and advice to be received by pupils in the latter part of each semester, when the time comes for them to make out their schedules for the following semester. Here, again, is an argument for homeroom grouping by classes. Mention should be made at this time that there are schools that segregate homerooms according to the type of curricula in which the boys and girls are enrolled. Such a method is decidedly undemocratic. The so-called curriculum of each boy and girl should be a decidedly individual affair, so that no invidious distinctions may be made between those enrolled in one type of curriculum and those enrolled in another. Because this phase of guidance is so important,

it should not be entrusted to a beginning teacher, unless the school staff is so short-handed in experienced teachers that it is forced to use beginners for this purpose.

Aside from conducting its business affairs and programs, and making out semester schedules, the homeroom is a political unit in the whole organization of the school. Whether there is some form of overall student government or not, the homeroom can furnish plenty of opportunity for the study and practice of citizenship. It can have its own organization with elected officers and appointed committees, each delegated to perform certain functions. All its business meetings should be conducted according to *Roberts' Rules of Order*. Appropriate committees are: programs, whose duties are obvious; housekeeping, to see that the room itself is kept up in spic-and-span condition; welfare, to send flowers or greetings to absent members; and social, to plan and manage any picnics, hayrides, or other parties that the group may wish to have.

But it is as a unit in the whole-school plan for education for citizenship that the homeroom plays its most important role. Any form of student council is based upon representatives elected by the unit groups. The smaller the school, the more direct will this representation be, i.e., practically every homeroom will elect one or more representatives. In a large school, on the other hand, the same system will have to apply as in the case of several counties that have to be satisfied to have just one man represent them in Congress. Two or more homerooms will have to get together to agree upon which is to have the representative on the council. All matters relating to the welfare of the school as a whole should be referred to each homeroom group by its representative on the council, and he, in turn, must speak, so far as it is possible, for the wishes of his constituents.

Homeroom Sponsors

Mention has already been made of the important part that guidance plays in the operation of homeroom. It may be that much of the failure attributed to the homeroom setup is due to the type of teacher who is put in charge. We must not, however, while we are on this topic, neglect to add that many homeroom failures may be traced to inadequate planning by the staff and inadequate supervision by the administration. But to return to the teacher selected to

sponsor a homeroom. Unless it is administratively necessary, a young teacher just out of college should be given the advantage of a year's experience in the school or some other school before being entrusted with the task of managing a homeroom. Otherwise it might be a case of the blind leading the blind.

Another suggestion that is worth consideration is that of continuing a homeroom sponsor with the same group, with, of course, the necessary adjustments that have to be made as the groups get smaller during their progress through the school. This system is followed in German secondary schools, with the result that the teacher and the group come to have a very close relationship with each other. There are schools in this country that follow a similar plan and for the same reasons.

THE STUDENT COUNCIL

Reference to the preceding discussion on the homeroom as a political unit of the school reveals the implied existence of an overall governing body of pupils composed of elected representatives. Let us refresh our minds by recalling that statement from Briggs, that it is the purpose of the school "to teach pupils to do better the desirable activities that they will perform anyway." Is not one of these desirable activities the participation of every man and woman in the civic life of his community? How will they learn the desirable performance of their civic duties if they have had no chance to exercise them as a part of their education for life adjustment? Being in a class where there is socialization is a slight step in this direction. Being a member of a club and a homeroom group is another. But these activities are more or less sporadic. There is no unity about them. How can a pupil get a concept of his civic responsibilities if he finds that his democratizing experiences, classroom, etc., are negated by an authoritarian type of school administration? No, there must be unity in the whole program. The philosophy of teaching and practicing democratic procedures must permeate the warp and woof of the whole school fabric. One step in this direction is the establishment of some form of representative student body, call it what you will. The most acceptable nomenclature seems to be the student council.

There was a time, in the earlier days of the movement, when this business was called student self-government. Like many other educa-

tional fantasies, this one went to the extreme of turning over to the pupils of the school almost everything that concerned them: cases of behavior, absence and tardiness cases, public relations, and what not. Experience proved the fallacy of this position and brought school people to the sober realization that, fundamentally and legally, there could be no such thing as student or pupil self-government. Legal authority to run the schools was vested in the board of education. Everything done by superintendent, principal, and staff had to be delegated to them by the board. In turn, anything that pupils might be allowed to do was delegated to them by the school administration and staff. As a result, when we refer to any such matters today, we always say: student participation in school government. It becomes a sharing proposition, teachers with pupils and pupils with teachers.

Initiation of the Program

The best description of the steps to be taken in bringing to pass a workable type of student participation in school government is that given by Foster.³ It is difficult to improve upon their order or wording, so here they are.

1. There must be a realization of the need for such an organization by both faculty members and pupils.
2. Teachers and pupils must be thoroughly familiar with the plan before it is put into effect.
3. Student participation in government should be introduced gradually.
4. A plan to be successful must be a simple one, adapted to local needs.
5. There must be constant, invisible supervision.
6. Any conception of student participation government as a disciplinary device must be avoided.
7. The veto power must always rest in the hands of the principal.

Functions of the Student Council

Criterion IIC of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools⁴ contains the following statement: "Special importance should be attached to provision for pupil participation

³ Charles R. Foster, *Extracurricular Activities in the High School*, Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond, Va., 1925, pp. 70-75.

⁴ "Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools," North Central Association Quart., 25, 145 (July, 1933).

through student councils or other similar organizations in the administration of those school functions which especially concern the interest and welfare of pupils." Note the emphasis on the last clause, "which especially concern the interest and welfare of pupils." It is this distinction which separates the two philosophies of student self-government and of student participation. Student participation is definitely related to those affairs in the school connected with and growing out of the extracurricular activity program.

What, then, are these affairs? As they are enumerated we must bear in mind that we are attempting to present a fairly complete picture of the possible functions of the student council. In a particular school different circumstances will necessitate the inclusion as well as the exclusion of one or more of the suggested functions. Just as in the case of the classification of clubs, it is believed that a better idea of what is involved in these functions will be obtained, if they are listed.

1. To charter school clubs, pass upon their constitutions, and take away the charters of nonfunctioning clubs
2. To have charge of assembly programs
3. To set up rules and regulations for school parties
4. To schedule extracurricular school functions
5. To supervise school publications
6. To administer and budget the extracurricular funds
7. To act in a liaison capacity between staff and student body
8. To supervise all elections
9. To supervise behavior in corridors, lunchrooms, study halls, library, and at public performances
10. To coordinate the citizenship activities between the various home-rooms
11. To act as hosts to visitors to the school
12. To act as a jury in the case of serious violations of good citizenship behavior in connection with functions 3, 9, 11

You will note that function 12 does involve a disciplinary phase that is seemingly disapproved in step 6 of the initiation of a student council program. The reason for step 6 is that, in the past, and unfortunately in some cases, in the present, the disciplinary function of the student council has been the preëminent one, in the eyes of both the faculty and the pupils. It has been considered all too often

an easy way of disposing of disciplinary problems by simply turning them over to the student council. This misconception of the true functions of a student council has been largely responsible for its failure in many schools to be a real force in education for life adjustment. There is so much in the first 11 functions to keep the council busy and on its toes that the twelfth becomes merely incidental. Why? Because, if the first 11 are properly handled, there will be little occasion for any recourse to function 12. We must, however, remember that no community or political body is composed of perfect individuals and that these occasions will always arise when someone steps out of line and needs to be brought back in.

Composition and Organization of the Student Council

There is no one way to elect and select representatives from the student body to serve on the council. The size of the council varies from 10 to over 200. It is unicameral or bicameral, like the two Houses of Congress. Some representatives are elected and others take office by virtue of their positions as presidents of certain school organizations, or all are elected. In the case of election, the representatives come from each class as a whole, from each homeroom, or from an apportioned number of homerooms.

The suggestions that follow are, of course, not the only solution to the problem of representation, but they do try to present what seems to be a good, working system. A unicameral body is to be preferred because it serves to expedite matters. Action is bound to be delayed when the lower body has to refer action to the higher. A small body is to be preferred to a large body, because the latter can become so unwieldy in size as to be a hindrance to good procedure. The members of the council should be elected from the classes or from the homerooms. There should be no ex-officio members. The upper classes should have a larger proportion of representation on the council than should the lower classes. Why? Because they have had more experience with and have more understanding of school problems. Their actions are not inclined to be as hasty and ill-advised as those of the first-year group.

A constitution is a necessary instrument to guide the deliberations and actions of the council. It is a mistake, however, to make this constitution too long and too specific. We know, only too well, how

times change, and that an involved constitution, developed at a certain time and under certain conditions, fails to meet the needs of a later date. The constitution should contain the bare essentials of what is needed to make it operate. All specifics should be relegated to the bylaws. These, as you know, can be changed by a majority vote, whereas changes in the constitution can be effected only by a two-thirds vote. For example, a certain constitution lists all the squads, traffic, lunch, corridor, assembly, etc., their composition and duties. Isn't it foolish to have to amend the constitution, when there no longer is a need for one or more of these squads?

The officers will ordinarily be a president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer. There is a question as to how these officers are to be elected. Should this election be by the council itself or by the student body at large? There are valid arguments for both methods. If the election is done by the council, a customary method is to appoint a nominating committee whose report will be supplemented by nominations from the floor. If the election is a student body affair, it is well to simulate our own 2-party system and present 2 slates of officers. An election campaign will culminate in the same kind of election procedure as is followed in state and national elections. It is also desirable to have the candidates for the highest offices chosen from the upper class. The reason is the same as that given for a greater proportionate representation from the upper classes.

The council should have a regular scheduled meeting once a week. Since the word "participation" characterizes its part in school administration, there must be one or more faculty representatives to meet with the council. Here is where part of the constant, invisible supervision takes place. This sponsor may be chosen by the council or appointed by the administration. The council will, like all such bodies, have to conduct much of its business through committees. It will not always be possible to have only council members serve on these committees, especially if the council is small. In this case, the chairman of the committee should always be a council member. Other members may be appointed from the student body at large.

The essential committees will be those that parallel the functions previously listed. They are: clubs, assemblies, social functions, publications, finance, election, traffic, buildings and grounds, and judiciary. Other committees will be appointed for special and tem-

porary purposes. Only under exceptional circumstances should the size of a committee exceed 3 or 5 members.

The Finance Committee

Special consideration is being given to this committee, because extracurricular finance has become big business in many schools. In most states, the handling of this money is the concern of the school only. When the receipts from dues, concessions, plays, publications, parties, and athletic events are added up, they amount to a sizable sum. The principal, of course, is held responsible for the way this money is handled, but the customary procedure is to have the finance committee of the student council supervise the receipts and disbursements. The head of the business department is, *ex-officio*, a member of the committee. He is bonded, so that all checks must bear his signature. That is why it is necessary that prospective teachers of business education learn the techniques of extracurricular finance.

ASSEMBLIES

This is an activity that is probably older than any that we now have. It is a direct descendant of the religious services that characterized our early secondary schools. When the public high school came into being, the custom of having some form of morning devotions was adopted. It still persists in many places. Colleges even followed the practice. Some still do. Others have had to abandon it because there was no place where the whole student body could be assembled at one time. The usual program was the reading of a passage from the Scriptures, the singing of a hymn, and the recital of the Lord's Prayer. As the religious influence in the schools waned, the secular took over. Little by little, the stereotyped form of chapel exercise gave way to the inclusion of other features, such as speeches, dramatic skits, music numbers, demonstrations, etc. In fact, school people came gradually to look upon the new type of assembly as a valuable educative experience.

Underlying Principles

The best statement of the principles underlying the place and values of the school assembly have been presented by C. R. Foster.*

* Charles R. Foster, *op. cit.*, pp. 109-117.

For convenience, they are herewith listed:

1. Development of school unity
2. Encouragement of school spirit
3. Motivation for curricular activities
4. Stimulation of interest in extracurricular activities
5. Stimulation of expression and overcoming of self-consciousness
6. Building up of proper habits and attitudes in audiences
7. Opportunity to share information
8. Creation of intelligent public opinion in the school
9. Development of the aesthetic senses

Conduct of the Assembly

Since assembly programs are an important concern of the pupils who are both participants and auditors, it becomes the duty of both staff and student body to cooperate in developing and managing the programs. The assembly committee is one of those listed for the student council. It should be composed of student council members and one or two faculty representatives. Its task is to schedule the programs for the year and to see that every individual or group is duly notified as to the date of its appearance. The president of the student council will usually preside over the programs. Assemblies will be held once a week or twice a month and will last not longer than a regularly scheduled class period. Where there is no activity period, the custom is to stagger the assembly periods, the first period this week, the second next week, the third the following week, and so on.

Types of Programs

The trend is to have as many as possible of the programs provided by and put on by the pupils themselves. The third and fourth principles emphasize this point. You, as teachers of a subject field or as sponsors of some type of activity, will be asked to have your group prepare an assembly program. Usually, what you do will be in the form of a demonstration of some of the more interesting phases of what you teach or what your group does, or it may be a skit, written and produced by your pupils. There is one thing that you must watch, and that is the time element. Have your production committee plan the program so meticulously that your presentation will

come well within the scheduled length of the assembly period. Education, in learning how to stay within a given time limit, is preparation for life adjustment, because all radio broadcasts are timed almost to the split second. Citizens are being called upon more and more to appear on radio programs. Experience in high school on how to budget time will be a decided help later on under such circumstances. It is also well for a public speaker to be able to confine his remarks within an allotted period of time.

Other school programs are drives of one sort or another, such as for subscriptions to the school annual, pep sessions (but not in excess), proposals put forward by the student council for the whole school to consider, and election campaigns and the elections themselves. Holidays and anniversaries, such as Thanksgiving, Easter, Lincoln's Birthday, and Arbor Day, furnish occasions for interesting programs. Another book by McKown⁶ will be found most helpful to any teacher and group who are wondering just what they can do in the way of a program that is somewhat different.

Programs put on by individuals and agencies outside the school used to be more prevalent than they are today. Even so, there are booking agencies still flourishing that make quite a pretty penny furnishing talent shows to high schools. When there was a dearth of talent within the school, because there were no attempts to bring it out, nothing much else could be expected. But now that music, art, speech, dramatics, and physical education have such a prominent part in the offerings of a school, the necessity of going elsewhere for assembly program material is not so pressing. Furthermore, these booked forms of entertainment cost money. They have to be financed some way. Either the money must come out of the extracurricular funds treasury of the student council, or an admission fee has to be charged to all those who wish to attend. The latter method nullifies the first two principles, the development of school unity and the encouragement of school spirit, and, consequently, is not recommended.

If outside speakers are asked to appear on the program, great care should be exercised in their selection. Nothing more defeats the principles of assembly programs than to have someone appear on

⁶ Harry C. McKown, *Assembly and Auditorium Activities*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1930.

the platform, or stage, who hems and haws, uses "and-uh" and "er-uh," and talks in disjointed sentences. Others talk above their heads. On the other hand, there is nothing more stimulating for high school boys and girls than to have someone to speak to them who has a message to give or a story to tell in a forceful and interesting manner.

The last type of program is the audio-visual one. This may be radio, transcription, or projection. The first is limited in use because of the time element. A radio program that would be worth hearing is seldom scheduled at the same time that the assembly meets. Transcriptions and movies, however, are always at hand. They have great values in implementing principles 7, 8, and 9. Care, however, must be exercised in their use, because, if you don't watch out, you will become lazy and come to depend upon them as an easy way out of doing your own work in preparing a program.

PUBLICATIONS

Who among you has not had the urge at some time in your life to see your name in print, whether it be just a notice of something you have done or some place you have been, or whether it be as the author of an article? How many of you, even before you got into the secondary school, fashioned your own newspaper or magazine, even though the first copy was the last? How many of you, while you were in secondary school, worked on the school newspaper or school annual, and how many of you have continued to do so in college? There is something fascinating, isn't there, about this publication business. For one thing, it is vibrant with life. There is something doing all the time. There is a purposiveness about it that is missing from so many other school activities. The news must be gotten. It must be edited. A deadline must be met. You must stand or fall by the results. You, yes you, are responsible, each of you, whether it be in a large or in a small way.

A school without a publication of some sort is a rarity. Maybe a year or so will pass, during which time the school may be minus a publication. But it won't be long until some budding genius will set the wheels in motion again. He will have gathered unto himself others with a like urge, and, together, they will produce another "rag."

This is their apprenticeship training. From here they will work up to be feature writers and copy readers. Then someone will become assistant editor and assistant business manager. The crowning achievement comes when these individuals, as seniors, become respectively editor in chief and business manager. Of course, all these promotions are subject to the approval and recommendation of the student council.

The annual has a different function to perform as a school publication. The name "yearbook" is a fitting one. Although the trend is toward having it represent the school as a whole, it is still primarily the memory book produced by and for the seniors. It bears on its cover the year that identifies each graduating class. Its contents largely emphasize the activities of this group from the time they entered school until the last months of the senior year. Then, in after years, when they have their own families, they will, on occasions, take the old annual from the shelf, turn the pages, sigh as the stories and the pictures recall the "good old days," laugh as they see how they looked "way back when," comment on how times have changed, and put the volume back on the shelf, there to remain for another year or more. The newspaper is a thing of today; the annual is a thing of tomorrow.

Since the publication of the annual is usually in the hands of the seniors, the senior class sponsor must share with the class the responsibility of producing a satisfactory book. So that experience may be a factor in the selection of the staff, the question may well be asked concerning the training of underclassmen as in the case of the newspaper. This might be done, so far as the juniors are concerned, but, if the idea that the project belongs to the senior class is to be preserved, then the same training experience cannot be followed. Furthermore, in the case of the newspaper, the first number must come off the press within a week or so after the opening of school. The staff of the annual has the advantage of beginning to make plans early in the school year, so that it is much easier for them to learn as they go along than it is for the newspaper staff.

The handbook is a hybrid type of publication. Sometimes it is published by the board of education. At other times the faculty prepares, edits, and publishes it. But the trend today is to have the student council sponsor its publication, even if the board finances it.

As a product of the student council, it should mean more to all the pupils in the school, because it serves as a message from their representatives to themselves. *It is their student council that is telling them what they need to know about their school, its floor plan, its history, its faculty, its curricular and extracurricular offerings, its traditions, its songs and yells, and its rules and regulations.* In many schools the handbook is used for study and guidance purposes, as part of the homeroom programs for entering classes. Its staff, naturally, is the publications committee of the student council.

The magazine antedated the newspaper in many schools. The reason is not far to seek. When the school population consisted of only 10 to 15 percent of boys and girls of secondary school age, those who did go to high school came from families in which the literary background was rather rich and varied. Compositions written in English classes were modeled after literary masterpieces. It was only natural that youngsters would wish to cast their own masterpieces into more permanent form. Thus came forth the literary magazine. It was the popular form of school publication until the complexion of the school population changed with the influx of boys and girls from homes of all sorts and conditions. Then it was that the newspaper supplanted the magazine in the hearts of the pupils.

The magazine, however, still survives in many schools that have not been able to escape its traditional hold on them. But what has happened in the majority of instances is that it has disappeared entirely or that it appears as an annual publication, an anthology of the best literary products gleaned from all the written expression classes in the school. Another form that it has assumed is its appearance on a much smaller scale as an individual class project. For example, a class in written expression wishes to stimulate all its members to try to improve their written efforts. Once a semester, it assembles the best work of each member of the class and has it published in typed or mimeographed form for distribution. The reward is that everyone sees his own name in print.

Costs of Publications

No publication can be put on the market without being financed. The sources of financial support are usually two, subscriptions and

advertisements. Subscriptions may be obtained directly by drives conducted in the homerooms, or indirectly from the publication's share of the proceeds derived from the activity ticket. In one school, every pupil receives a copy of the weekly newspaper, because its total cost is covered by the income from advertisements and because it is printed in the school print shop. Again, as in the case of club membership dues, we must caution against setting a subscription rate higher than the traffic will bear. One important function of the newspaper is to disseminate news to as many as possible in the school. This purpose is defeated if a large number of pupils do not have access to the newspaper because of its cost.

The same thing is true of the annual. Unless the student council has set a limit for expenditures, of which the greatest share is taken by the reproduction of half-tones, each class will want to outdo what was done by the previous class or by the seniors of a neighboring school. It becomes a case of not only keeping up with the Joneses but of getting ahead of them. Seniors are not to be blamed if they yearn to bring out a yearbook that will surpass all other yearbooks. A halt has to be called somewhere. Remember what was said previously, "the annual is a thing of tomorrow." It is not the elaborateness of the production that will be the important thing in the years ahead. What will have meaning then will be the contents, *not* the form. If you have the privilege of being sponsor for the annual, yours will be the task to impress the above facts upon the class as well as upon the staff.

Because the expense in producing a yearbook is so heavy, and because it is impossible to charge the purchasers of the yearbook with this expense, resort is had to various ways of raising the necessary funds. As it progresses through school, the class is granted a certain concession, such as selling candy bars during the noon hour and after school. The profits go into a fund that will later be used to finance the yearbook. Advertising is also used as another source of revenue. Whereas there may be some justification for soliciting ads for the newspaper, especially if it appears daily or weekly, there can be no such justification in the case of the annual. The only defense that can be offered is that the buying of advertising space in the annual is a sign of good will. A much better way to express this good will would simply be to ask the would-be advertisers to donate

a certain amount of money to the annual. To give acknowledgment to their generosity, a page or two in the annual would give the names of all those who had so contributed.

The magazine can exist only if enough copies are sold or subscriptions taken to pay for itself. There are the same objections to having advertising help out with the expenses as there are for the yearbook. The cost of the handbook is borne by the board of education or by the student council.

The Duplication of Publications

Often the cry is raised that the school cannot afford to put out a newspaper or an annual because printing costs are prohibitive and printing facilities inadequate or lacking. Various methods of duplication have been so refined and perfected that this objection is no longer valid. In fact, some of the most attractive newspapers, magazines, and yearbooks have been produced by some form of duplication, especially the mimeograph. With the use of a machine like the Varityper it is possible to produce typed columns whose right-hand edges are as even as those produced on the linotype. Best of all, various forms of type may be used so as to give the page a most pleasing appearance. Even a low-cost yearbook can be published by this same process. So far as illustrations are concerned, the actual photographs, cut and trimmed to size, are pasted on their assigned places. Color can also be used more advantageously. By the way, the use of the mimeograph makes possible the issuing of the class magazine, previously referred to.

SOCIAL FUNCTIONS

In the early part of our discussion of extracurricular activities, mention was made of the failure on the part of the school to pay any attention to the social life of its boys and girls. That was, so went the belief, the function of the home and of the church. So long as the church and the home performed this office, well and good. But the time came, as was said, when they did not serve all the children of all the people. At least, that was true of the church. What happened to the family was that, according to the standards set by those who seemed to know, it, too, was failing in many instances to provide the "right kind" of social life for its own children.

Boys and girls were not being taught how to meet each other properly, how to dance properly, how to have fun together properly, how to enjoy the proper kind of entertainment, how to spend their money properly for leisure activities, and how to practice the proper social graces.

Notice the emphasis on the adverb "properly" and the adjective "proper." The assumption was that there were standards of social behavior characterized by the word "decent," the implication being that there were accepted and unaccepted ways of doing the things listed above. The performance of these activities in an acceptable fashion would lead to a more civilized type of society, where courtesy and consideration for others would be the outstanding characteristics. Their performance in unaccepted ways would inevitably lead to juvenile delinquency and a rude and discourteous type of society. So the school undertook the task of trying to inculcate into its boys and girls the habits and practices of acceptable social usage.

Occasions for Social Functions

Every organization in the school looks forward to the time when it can have its "party." In fact, that is one of the main reasons for membership dues. Parties will be given by clubs, by classes, and by the student council. Class parties are usually held at the beginning of the school year so as to acquaint members with each other. A club party is an elaborated form of program. The student council may have its own party similar to any other group, but it also is responsible for a social affair involving both faculty and pupils.

There is, or should be, a committee of the student council whose task is to sanction or deny requests from various groups for giving a party. Since facilities are often limited, this committee is also responsible for making up a calendar of social activities. It also passes upon the amount that may be spent for the party.

Types of Social Functions

There are many, many interesting kinds of activities in which pupils may engage. Sponsors who are fresh out of college often entertain the mistaken notion that dancing is the only form of entertainment in which youngsters care to participate. They have forgotten, or they fail to realize, that a lot of adolescent boys do not care

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to dance. Unless they are show-offs, they shrink from doing anything that makes them stand out in a mixed crowd. Some type of entertainment must be devised that will break down the reserve, self-consciousness, and gaucherie of these youngsters and put them more or less at ease. Various forms of parties are games, dancing, roller-skating, hikes, picnics, hayrides, carnivals, circuses, teas, banquets, receptions, theater parties, and amateur performances.

Some forms of social functions are more or less naturals, that is, they are what boys and girls would want to do, anyway. But it is a different matter when it comes to the tea, reception, and banquet type of activity. These are somewhat more formal in nature, although a dancing party can be quite formal on occasions. Teas and receptions give youngsters experiences in a kind of social function that will be a part of their adult lives. The objection that many people have to this form of entertainment is that it is not entertainment. But it can be made so. The essence of the tea and the reception is the meeting with many people and the conversation that ensues. And conversation can be one of the most invigorating forms of social entertainment that we have.

The banquet is also a place where conversation plays an important role, but a much more valuable contribution to social experience is the opportunity it affords to learn and practice the reasonable forms of table etiquette. A procedure used successfully by sponsors is to have a prebanquet discussion of what each one is expected to do and then to hold a post-mortem at the next meeting of the group to analyze the successes and the failures.

Whatever is done in the way of entertainment, steps must be taken to see that there is opportunity for everybody to participate. That is the responsibility of the entertainment committee. Usually, the most successful parties are those for which careful planning has seen to it that there is something for everybody to do all the time. Especially is this true in the case of games. One popular method is to select a variety of games, arrange them in progressive order, with a time limit for playing any one, divide those in attendance into as many pairs of groups as necessary and have each pair keep score against each other. The pair that can show the greatest number of points over its opposite is given some sort of prize. A party of this type is guaranteed to make everybody feel at home.

Costs of Social Functions

The word is economy. It is the amount of fun that people have at a party, not how much it costs, that really counts. As in the case of the yearbook, groups tend to try to outdo each other in the lavishness and display that characterize their parties. A good lesson in consumer education is to learn how to get the maximum enjoyment out of a minimum cost. To do so entails the exercise of much ingenuity, but the satisfaction that comes to one when it is all over more than compensates for the extra work.

The items that come under the head of costs are decorations, favors, refreshments, and entertainment. The watchword, again, is economy. The art department, assisted by crepe paper, can work wonders. The giving of favors on the secondary school level is somewhat passé. Refreshments will vary with the occasion, cider and doughnuts at Halloween, wieners, buns, and pickles on a picnic, tea or coffee and cakes at a tea or reception, a regular menu at a banquet. The only time when entertainment will cost much is for music at a dance. A strange conceit has developed on the secondary school and college levels that an orchestra, to be really something, must come from afar. The farther an orchestra has to travel and the more it costs, the hotter or the dreamier is its music to dance by. Since practically all "name" bands have recorded their specialties, why not use their transcriptions?

Rules and Regulations

There are certain rules and regulations that should govern the holding of parties. It won't be possible for each one of them to apply to all situations everywhere, because there are schools that do not have proper facilities for youngsters to hold social functions. Their architecture is of the post-Civil War type, when schools were built to serve one purpose, that of providing classrooms for the hearing of lessons. The ceilings made up in height what might have been spared for recreation rooms. Pupils, almost of necessity, must hold their parties elsewhere.

Here are some generally accepted regulations that should be observed:

1. Social functions should be held on school premises.
2. They should not be scheduled on a night preceding a school day.

administered by any student group. Consequently, any discussion that we have had is not related to this activity.

Music

There are two extracurricular phases in connection with music activities. One is the appearance of vocal as well as instrumental groups at community functions. Especially is this true of athletic contests. The other has to do with participation in so-called music contests or festivals. So far as the first phase is concerned, the school has to decide how much school time can be missed by such departures from school during the school day. Good things can be carried to extremes. It is the taxpayer's money that supports the school, but he must be made to realize, by means of a good public relations program, that a proper balance must be preserved between the legitimate work of the school and his own pleasure.

As to the second, we find grounds for much argument. On the side of the contests is the encouragement and stimulation that furnish incentives to individuals and groups to improve the quality of their work. On the opposite side there is the claim that many pupils are neglected in favor of the few (as in the case of athletics), and that the background in music experience is restricted because of the necessity of drilling on the contest selections. It is for this reason that an organization like the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is attempting to bring about a more sanely balanced program of music in our schools by deemphasizing the contest element.

Speech Activities

What has just been said about music contests applies fully as well to speech activities. The greatest criticism being directed against this area is that the teachers, or sponsors, of speech, debate, and drama are not satisfied with the time allotted them for these activities, but that they are constantly pulling pupils out of their other classes for extra coaching. A teacher of mathematics is not allowed to do this. Why, then, should you, as a speech teacher, be granted this privilege? The answer is that you should not. If you feel that you do not have enough time for your purpose, then you

must modify your purpose and cut down on your activity. Of course, your work is important. So is that of every other teacher in the school.

SUMMARY

We have tried, in rather brief compass, to demonstrate to you prospective teachers that there is another side to this business of teaching school, in fact, a very important side. You are hired to teach mathematics, shop, art, business, social studies, etc., but you are also expected to assist in sponsoring one or more phases of extracurricular activities. You have had described for you the reasons for the inclusion of extracurricular activities as an integral part of the school program, and the essential elements involved in clubs, student participation in government, homerooms, assemblies, publications, social functions, and contests. As you read about them, you should have been thinking of the extent to which you, when you become a teacher, might act as a sponsor and how you would assist your pupils in achieving satisfactory results.

We cannot leave this until we have revealed how extracurricular activities might contribute to the 4 objectives of education. First, we have the *health objective*. Physical health is related, of course, to athletics and intramural activities. The physical side of hikes, picnics, and hayrides gets one out into the open air and the country. The very fact that one is given the privilege of doing something purely optional on his part creates a better attitude and a corresponding improvement in mental health.

The spare-time aspect of leisure permeates the whole area of extracurricular activities. Recreation is the goal. Parties are outstanding in this respect. The aesthetic side is found in the excellence of the performance of assembly programs and in the decorations that grace the parties.

Living and working together certainly contributes to the social living objective. Committee work demands the closest type of cooperation, if its efforts are to meet with success. There is a give-and-take in what goes on in an organization that cannot be so natural in a regular classroom. Learning and practicing the rules of parliamentary procedure is an invaluable preparation in all kinds of elections, from homeroom to student council. Yes, the contributions of

extracurricular activities to the objective of social living are great and far-reaching.

As to the economic efficiency, there are many opportunities for invaluable experiences. Out of the hobby club may come the incentive to continue the activity as a vocation. So with music, dramatics, speech, handicrafts, athletics. Any activity has limitless guidance possibilities in "revealing higher types of activities and making them both desired and to an extent possible." Everything that enters into extracurricular finance, membership dues, budgets, publication receipts and expenditures, activity tickets, and costs of social functions is direct education in consumer education.

Yes, extracurricular activities have much to contribute.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. If your school had a student council, evaluate its strong and weak points.
2. In what ways might its value to the school have been improved?
3. Evaluate the club program in your secondary school.
4. Evaluate the assembly program in your secondary school.
5. Evaluate the social functions given in your secondary school.
6. Evaluate the publications sponsored by your secondary school.
7. What opportunities does your college or university campus offer for participation in extracurricular activities? What advantage have you taken of these opportunities?
8. Analyze your own preparation to sponsor some form of extracurricular activity in the secondary school.

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The Secondary School Teacher and Guidance

DID you ever find yourself in a quandary as to what you should do? Did you ever come to the intersection of two roads and wonder which one you should take in order to get to your destination? When you went from the elementary or the junior to the senior high school, did you have any fears or anxieties as to what you were to expect and what you were supposed to do? As you advanced through high school, were you always sure as to what subjects you should take? In fact, were you, or even your family, sure of what your goal was—going to work after graduation or going to some college? And, if it was college, to what college? Now it so happens that you went to college. That is why you are in this class in secondary education. But what led you to select your curriculum in college, so as to be in this particular class? Being in this course assumes that you are planning to teach. This means that you are preparing yourself to be certificated in certain special areas. How did you know that you were choosing the right courses that would bring you to your goal most expeditiously?

Now, what about those of your classmates in high school, either those who graduated with you and did not continue on to college, or those who never did go to school long enough to graduate? How have they met the various quirks of fate that they have encountered? Take those who did not graduate with you. Why didn't they graduate? Do you know? Did anyone in the school know? Could it be that they were so bewildered by their surroundings that they gave

up in utter hopelessness? Could it be that their teachers were so intent upon the technical mastery of what they were teaching that they were unable to transfer any meaning of what was taught to these nongraduates? Could it be that these same teachers were blissfully unaware of the possibility that there were such things as future nongraduates in their classes? You know, do you not, that many teachers teach their pupils as if all these pupils expected to graduate from college?

Was there anyone in school who took any interest in any of you, whether you expected to leave school before graduation, remain until graduation, or even go on to college? Or did all of you go blundering along your separate ways, learning by the individualized method characteristic of all who attend the "university of hard knocks?" What is this method? That we learn by experience, especially the experience of trial and error, where we must make mistake after mistake in order to learn what not to do.

We cannot negate the value of direct experience, but, must it be necessary for every individual to learn everything from the beginning? Cannot his faltering feet be saved from making so many missteps? Furthermore, is it going to be possible, even, for him to find out for himself which pathways in the maze of life will lead him to his goal? How is he going to discover that this path leads to a cul-de-sac, or even to many such dead ends? Certainly there should be some, shouldn't there, who have traveled the maze before him, who can point out the utter uselessness of going down that particular path, because it will get him nowhere? This could, of course, be done only in instances where the waste of time would be so very obvious, where the learning experience would be entirely unprofitable. No, we are not advocating any idea that man does not learn by experience, sometimes bitter experience. What we are proposing is that it is both desirable and necessary to save an individual as much as possible from making too many avoidable mistakes, the kind of mistakes that get him nowhere.

Life is constantly presenting us with a bifurcated plan of activity. Another way of describing it is to say that it consists of an unending succession of Y's and crossroads. We are constantly confronted with the challenge of making decisions. It is that we might make fewer wrong decisions that we find ourselves in need of some sympathetic

will not have the opportunity to make the choice that Dewey suggests. It is their lot to take whatever job is open and *make the best of it*, at least, for the time being. There is nothing in our society, at least theoretically, that prevents a man from changing his mind and his job. Just changing from one job to another is merely time-serving and conducive to a mere hand-to-mouth existence. But change that involves advancement, growth in performance, and increase in responsibility is quite another thing.

Life adjustment education is concerned with both groups, the static and the progressive. The highest goal, of course, is to try "to find out what one is fitted to do and the opportunity to do it," but a more important one may be to learn to adjust to whatever job one has, to perform the tasks of that job to the best of one's ability, and to make that job serve to further one's own individual hopes and desires. The job of a bookkeeper may not be the most fascinating one in the world, but it does involve a responsibility in keeping the financial affairs of an organization in shape, it does offer the opportunity to work with other people, and it does furnish the means to buy that coveted album of symphonic records.

That part of life concerned with assisting people to avoid making too many mistakes, to make wiser choices of the directions they will take, and to meet best the 4 objectives of education is called guidance. From the day of his birth, an individual is subjected to this type of guidance on the part of everyone with whom he is associated. His mother directs him in his diet and his physical needs. Both parents direct him in his vocabulary, his speech habits, his type of play, his early attitudes toward the objects and people of his environment. When he goes to school, nursery, preschool, kindergarten, or first grade, these directions are shared by the teachers on these levels. Sometimes the influence of the home wanes as that of the school waxes. Guidance in the school becomes, then, a matter of tremendous importance in the life of the individual. There are times, even, when the two forces, the home and the school, come into conflict. This may happen in the case of any home, from the one in which the parents think that they know what is best for their child to the one where the parents know little and care less about the *welfare of their offspring*.

Guidance in the Elementary School

In the elementary school guidance becomes largely a matter of adjusting the individual to his social milieu, to his social heritage in the form of the basic information that he needs in order to be a member of the society into which he has been born, and to his developing individualized needs and interests. Departmentalized instruction used to be carried down into the fourth grade, but the present trend is to have the pupils of one grade instructed by one teacher, except for specialized subjects like art, music, and physical education. *The teacher becomes better acquainted with her own group of youngsters and can single out those who need more individual attention. But, on the whole, there are more common problems of guidance on the elementary level than on the secondary because boys and girls are pursuing a common curriculum.*

It is true that there is individualization of instruction; nevertheless all are studying the same topic or project in the activity school and the same study in the subject-centered school. Every now and then the teacher does come across a youngster who begins to show signs of special talent in a particular field. Probably he can use his hands most skillfully in working with tools; probably he shows a most sensitive ear for music; probably he can already express himself with considerable facility and fluency. The teacher makes note of these budding talents and provides opportunity for their further exercise. He also tells the youngsters how they can receive more specialized instruction in these areas when they get to the secondary school.

Personality adjustment is, of course, one of the big problems of the elementary teacher. The objective of social living is one that should receive much attention, because personality adjustment is involved in learning how to get along with other people. The sensitive child, the timid child, the crybaby, the aggressive child, and the bully—all need guidance from the teacher and their classmates in coming out of their shells or toning down their overbearing manners. The elementary teacher has a very personal and delicate task to perform in this connection. Guidance in living together is what she gives.

GUIDANCE IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

As prospective teachers you are concerned with the type of guidance that you will encounter in the secondary school. Here, again, we are faced with the same situation that confronted us in the case of extracurricular activities. As beginning teachers you cannot be expected to learn or master all the details that will be connected with your on-the-job duties. You will be engrossed in making lesson plans and in assuring yourselves that you yourselves have a fair knowledge of the content of each day's lesson.

Little by little, however, as you become more acclimated to this type of activity, those things that exist on the periphery of your classroom experiences begin to assume a more distinct form and you find yourselves in a position to recognize them as something to which you need to give attention. One of them is extracurricular activities, another is guidance. But, as a beginner, you are naturally limited as to what you can do in both areas. That is the reason that the best we can hope to do with you is to reveal to you some of the things, the performance of which lies within the realm of possibility, so far as you are concerned. Then, after you have had actual teaching experience for a year or more, you will be in a much better position to take specialized courses in the guidance area on the graduate level.

What is guidance on the secondary school level?

For the answer to this question we shall resort to the "Statement of Guiding Principles" in the 1950 revision of the *Evaluative Criteria*.

Guidance services, as applied to the secondary school, should be thought of as organized activities designed to give systematic aid to pupils in solving their problems and in making adjustments to various situations which they must meet. These activities should assist each pupil in knowing himself as an individual and as a member of society; in making the most of his strengths and in correcting or compensating for weaknesses that interfere with his progress; in learning about occupations so that he may intelligently plan and prepare, in whole or in part, for a career; in learning about educational opportunities available to him; and in discovering and developing creative and leisure interests.

These objectives should be achieved through cooperative relationships among the home, school, and of the secondary school and the sending schools; through use of a system of cumulative records and reports; through interpretation of adequate and specific data concerning the individual pupil; through a comprehensive and effective system of counseling; through coordination of the work of the school and community agencies; and through definite provisions for articulating the work of the school with the needs of the individual after he leaves school.

To effect these results the school administration must support and encourage the guidance function with leadership and facilities necessary to provide adequate services. All members of the guidance and teaching staffs should understand their mutual responsibilities and should desire to cooperate in fulfilling these responsibilities. Although every teacher and administrative officer should be prepared to participate in guidance activities, the services of competent counselors who have specialized training should be available. In conjunction with other available information, measurements and tests of various types, standardized or locally devised, and personality and interest inventories should be available and should be used as guidance tools with full knowledge of their values and limitations.

Finally, the guidance services should reveal facts about the pupils enrolled and the community served which the whole school staff should study and interpret in the continuous evolution of the curriculum.²

This quotation covers the various aspects of the whole guidance program in the secondary school. You should reread and study it carefully so you may begin to understand what a comprehensive effort it is and to recognize the part that you as a teacher have in it. It is this latter phase which will receive major consideration in the discussion which follows. There are three aspects of the problem that concern you as a prospective teacher. They are: (1) what you need to know about the school's counseling program and what it has to offer you as a teacher; (2) what you can do as a classroom teacher; and (3) what you can do as a homeroom teacher and extracurricular sponsor.

The School's Counseling Program

The guidance program in a school can be formal or informal, or a combination of both. In the formal setup, all guidance work is

²"Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards," *Evaluation Criteria*, Washington, D.C., 1930, p. 221.

centralized in a counseling office and staff. Teachers are supposed to refer all cases of all kinds to this central office. In the informal arrangement, guidance becomes more or less an individualized proposition. It consists of the daily contacts that all staff members have with their pupils and the influence exerted by these same staff members. In contrast with the formal type it may be classed as decentralized guidance. Some even call it hit-and-miss guidance. It really is analogous to the kind of guidance to which all of us are subjected through all of our experiences. The only difference is that we don't usually dignify it by the term "guidance."

By this time it is obvious that the formal and informal type of guidance is a combination of the two just described. The school has a central guidance office with a staff member who devotes part or all of his time to administration of the testing program, keeping and interpreting records, and holding conferences with individual pupils. At the same time, all teachers are encouraged to exert every effort to assist the guidance office in counseling and planning with those pupils who are in his classroom, homeroom, or club. It is this phase of guidance to which we wish particularly to call your attention.

What Does the School Need to Know About Its Pupils?

Let us again quote from the *Evaluative Criteria* (p. 225).

Comprehensive information about pupils, systematically organized for us, is essential for an effective guidance program. It is desirable that significant information obtained in the elementary school or junior high school be made available at or before the time of the pupil's enrollment in the next higher school and that additional items of information having guidance value be added to each pupil's records as he progresses through the school. Information concerning vocational experiences, further education and postschool adjustment should be added to the records of those pupils who have left school.

The scope and nature of records will depend upon the organization of the guidance services within a particular school. It should be emphasized that records are not of value for their own sake but only as they are used to promote more effective adjustment of pupils.

The cumulative record is essentially unitary, every item of which needs to be consulted when a pupil problem, or a pupil-counselor conference, is in question. It is recognized that in large schools there may be administra-

tive reasons for separating the files of these records, but this should be done in such a way that all records are accessible for quick consultations. It is also recognized that some items are more confidential than others. It must be assumed, however, that both teachers and counselors are professional persons and that all items will be treated as professionally as the physician or lawyer treats information about his patient or his client.

The information available on the records would include data from the sending school, physical and mental test results, achievement records, personality and interest inventories, data concerning the educational and socioeconomic status and other pertinent characteristics of the home, and the results of interviews and conferences with the pupil and his parents. It is also important for the school to maintain follow-up studies not only of those who graduate, but of those who leave before they graduate. Data of this sort may form the basis for a critical analysis and study by the staff of their success or failure in educating their pupils for life adjustment.

The extent to which all this information should be available to all teachers is a question. Probably the best answer is that given in the last paragraph in the above quotation from the *Evaluative Criteria*. Certainly, as we shall have occasion to mention in connection the homeroom teacher and guidance, there are certain records which should be available to the teacher at all times.

The Classroom Teacher and Guidance

It was President Garfield who said, "A pine bench, with Mark Hopkins at one end of it and me at the other, is a good enough college for me."³ The most effective help that one person can give another is when he is working with him personally and individually. In school, the classroom teacher is probably the one who can exert a great influence on his pupils. He can draw them unto himself, as did a master teacher two millenia ago, and lead them to believe that the subject he teaches is the most important one in the world, so much so, that the majority of his pupils wish to emulate him.⁴ On the other hand, there is the teacher who unfortunately repels his

³ James Abram Garfield, Address at a Williams College alumni dinner at Delmonico's, New York, Dec. 28, 1871. (Washington Gladden, *Recollections*, p. 73.)

⁴ See *Life*, Oct. 16, 1950, pp. 109-114; also *Time*, Oct. 9, 1950, pp. 71-75, especially pp. 72-75, on "Maker of Chemists."

pupils so that their universal reaction is that they never wish to have anything more to do with "that" subject the rest of their lives.

Of course, the reasons we do what we do are myriad, but it is possible to state that, aside from such influences as family and friends have exerted, you have chosen to go into teaching and you have chosen a particular teaching field as a favorite because of some teacher or teachers in elementary school, secondary school, or college. It now becomes your turn to do the same thing for somebody else. It will not be out of place to repeat some of the things said in the discussion of the economic efficiency objective. The guidance phase of classroom teaching has two parts, education for life adjustment via the subject itself which is taught in the classroom, and the discovery of those individuals who show special aptitude for and talent in that particular subject field and the encouragement extended to them to continue to improve themselves in that area.

Education for life adjustment on the part of the classroom teacher consists in analyzing the content of what is taught so that it may be directed toward achieving better living in the fields of health, leisure, social living, and economic efficiency. Illustrations of ways in which this may be done have been presented in the discussions of each of these objectives. Take to heart what was said in those chapters and try to get across to your pupils that what you teach really and truly does have a relationship to what they are now doing and to what they hope to do. This type of guidance can be one of the most effective agencies in the school, for the simple reason that, if boys and girls do see some reason for studying the subject that you are teaching, they are not so likely, other things being equal, to say, "What's the use?" and to quit school in disgust. The more worthwhile contributions which the school has to make toward education for life adjustment come in the last 2 years of the senior high school. If you, by making your subject one that contributes to the 4 objectives, can thereby cause a boy or a girl to stay in school long enough to benefit by the more advanced courses like American history, American problems, consumer education, physical science, advanced homemaking, and practical arts, you will have proved yourself as a classroom teacher of guidance.

But there is also the joy that is yours in finding a boy or a girl in your classes who displays especial facility in the subject. It is from

such beginnings that our future scientists, teachers, lawyers, medical men, architects, engineers, actors, and business executives come. *Some of them have already had the guidance at home that will shape their futures.* Others will be the joy of your discovery. Maybe it is a selfish point of view to take, but there certainly can be no greater satisfaction to come to any teacher than that of knowing that he has been responsible for launching some of his pupils upon the road to successful careers.

When any one pupil begins to show promise of doing superior work in an area that you are teaching, there are several things that you can do to encourage him to strive for greater mastery and achievement. First of all, your very attitude of sympathy will pass from you to him and cause him to feel that in you he has someone who appreciates what he is doing. You can suggest to him the reading of the biographies of those who have already achieved along this line. There are also books that deal with the activities of and possibilities in careers that develop out of this area as a background. You can have him meet and talk with those who are now working in various related callings. You can have him write to different institutions of higher education to find out their admission requirements, their particular offerings in the area in which he is interested, the cost of tuition, board, room, textbooks, and accessories, the kinds of scholarships that are available, and the steps to be taken to apply for a scholarship.

There will be instances when you are not quite sure about encouraging somebody to continue studying in your area. You have doubts as to whether or not it would be worth while for him to try to specialize. Then it is that you may need to consult this pupil's file in the guidance office, or wherever it may be located. Ofttimes the information to be found is not as voluminous as that suggested in an earlier part of our discussion, but you will probably find material that will be of some assistance. This would be especially true of intelligence, aptitude, and achievement test scores, and the scores on personality and interest inventories. Data on the socioeconomic status of the family will tell you what the possibilities of financial assistance may be toward continued education. In the case of test scores, you must not place complete confidence in what they reveal, especially if they are single scores. That is why you, as a beginning

teacher, should consult someone who knows more about the testing field for an interpretation of such scores as are recorded.

If you find that, through your interest in what happens to your pupils, you are yourself developing a leaning toward the human relationship phase of education, you should make use of every available facility that the school may put at your disposal to familiarize yourself with the guidance techniques employed in your school. Then, after a year or more of experience, you should give serious thought to begin work on the graduate level "in such fields as the supervision of instruction in the secondary school, personnel and guidance, methods of teaching, educational psychology, and philosophy of education."³

The Homeroom Teacher and Guidance

In the discussion on extracurricular activities (pp. 398-402), reference was made to the guidance function of the homeroom teacher. The operation of the homeroom is carried on so differently in different schools that it is hard to set up any one pattern of activity. We shall assume, therefore, that the homeroom is organized so that it meets as a unit at least once a week under the direction of the homeroom teacher, and that a schedule of activities has been planned for each semester. It has already been suggested that entering classes might well study the handbook (see p. 413) as a means of orienting them to the school and to each other. It is desirable early in their school life that pupils have presented to them in a reliable and wholesome fashion just what the school they are attending is like, the location of the rooms in the building, the objectives of the school, the various curricular offerings and the purposes served by each of them, requirements for graduation, how to make up majors and minors, and the entrance requirements of various types of postsecondary schools. If there is a student council form of pupil participation in government, they will learn its organization and their relationship to it. They will also learn the number, nature, and activities of the school clubs. They will, in short, learn to become intelligent citizens of their school community.

³ North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, "Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools," Reg. IV C, *North Central Association Quart.*, 25, 138 (July, 1950).

An activity that transpires every semester is that of making out a program for the following semester. Unfortunately, it happens all too often that this procedure is carried out in a hit-and-miss fashion. Pupils make out their programs in a keep-up-with-the-Jones fashion. The prestige attached to the college preparatory curriculum is so great that, left to themselves, pupils will elect those subjects that will meet the requirements of this curriculum. Such a choice is often the most unwise thing that a youngster could make. He has no intention of going to college, he doesn't have the aptitude for the kind of work that college represents, and he isn't going to be able to transfer to his own life activities many lessons gained from the pursuit of such a curriculum.

Some would say that the task of advising these youth rests upon the shoulders of the regular guidance staff. That's fine, if there is a large enough staff to spend the time needed to get acquainted sufficiently well with each pupil to make him feel at home so that the counselor can really work with him. But, when the time rolls around for the new programs to be made out, the homeroom pupils have become well enough acquainted with their homeroom teacher to be able to talk with him as a friend. It will be much easier for this teacher to point out what must be taken in order to meet graduation requirements and then to help the individual make a more proper election of other subjects in the light of his apparent needs.

To give suitable advice, some of the data and records pertaining to each pupil should be on hand in a homeroom file or in the desk of the homeroom teacher. Test and achievement scores, data on the family, and participation in activities should constitute the minimum amount of available information. The same caution in the use of any of these data needs to be observed by the homeroom teacher as was suggested in the case of the classroom teacher. Whenever the homeroom teacher is in doubt about the interpretation of data, he should consult someone who can help him out, if there is such a person on the staff. If you are a beginning teacher, go to an older teacher for assistance.

Occasionally, the homeroom teacher will find it necessary to act in another guidance capacity, that of father confessor. Boys and girls are constantly experiencing problems that concern their very way of life. There is trouble in the family, there is disagreement with

schoolmates, there is a falling-out with one's sweetheart, there is friction with some teacher, there is insufficient recognition given by the coach, etc., innumerable cases that eat at the youngster's heart. He feels that he has no one to whom to go for comfort. It is here that the homeroom teacher can be a present help in time of trouble, i.e., if he has been able by his actions to gain the confidences of his pupils. Nothing gives one a much happier feeling than to realize that he has been able to give such comfort to one of his troubled pupils that he can cause him to smile again. That is a reward for work well done.

Extracurricular Activities and Guidance

Since the previous chapter was devoted to the area of extracurricular activities, and, since guidance is an integral part of this field, only passing mention of its contributions will be made at this point. Inasmuch as extracurricular activities deal with the volitional aspect of education, it follows that they provide innumerable opportunities for a boy or girl to develop new interests or to advance those that they already have. For example, membership in a handicrafts club might get a boy interested in the printing industry, participation on a debate team might lead toward law, work on a school newspaper might guide one into journalism, and being treasurer of an organization might cause one to become interested in accounting. The possibilities are also great for personal guidance, learning how to get along with one's class and schoolmates. Extracurricular activities are certainly a fruitful field for the operation of guidance.

SUMMARY

We have tried to demonstrate, by using you as examples, how universal is the place of and necessity for guidance. Guidance is the soul of the movement for life adjustment education. In the school we find elaborate and simple systems to help pupils find themselves emotionally, morally, intellectually. As a beginning teachers, you will not be called upon to do intensive work in guidance. Your efforts will largely be spent in doing what you can as a classroom teacher to aim at the 4 objectives of education and the discovery of talented youngsters, and, as a homeroom teacher in acting as a

friend to your pupils and assisting them to make wiser choices of their school programs.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. What factors influenced you to attend the college or university in which you are now enrolled?
2. Single out, if you can, the reasons for selecting your college major.
3. What did your secondary school do in the way of giving you (a) personal guidance, (b) occupational guidance, (c) health guidance, and (d) guidance in the use of leisure?
4. What assistance is provided by your college or university to give guidance to students?
5. If possible, get personally acquainted with some high school boy or girl and try to find out from them what they feel they are not receiving in the way of guidance.
6. Expand the list given under extracurricular activities and guidance to show the great extent to which this area does make to the guidance program.

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Teacher Education

AT A conference on teacher education the statement was made that prospective secondary school teachers do not seem to manifest the same interest in their courses in education as is displayed in their professional courses by those preparing for other careers. A possible explanation may be that prospective teachers are composed of three groups, those who really do intend to go into teaching, those who will marry as soon as possible and then quit teaching, and those who enroll in a school of education to acquire a degree without having to take a foreign language to do so. This last group has no intention of ever going into teaching.

Now many of us who teach these professional courses in education assume that all three of the above groups are so fired with professional zeal that all of them can hardly wait from one class meeting to the next. What is more, we assume that they listen to us open-mouthed, eagerly awaiting each pearl of wisdom that drops from our lips, when what they are really awaiting is for the bell to ring so that they may keep that coke date made earlier in the day.

Isn't it possible that we who have come through the mill are attributing to you undergraduate prospective teachers the way we feel now rather than the way we felt when we were undergraduates? Can we honestly say that there are many girls (undergraduate) who do not hope to make a successful marriage as soon as satisfactory arrangements can be made and that those who continue in teaching as spinsters do so because of failure in this endeavor? It is true

that some of you girls look upon the possession of a teaching certificate as a sort of insurance policy from which a job may be borrowed in an emergency, but that's something in the distant future. The immediate is what concerns you now, and the immediacy in education is not so pressing as it is in medicine, law, dentistry, business, research, or graduate work. If there is any immediacy it is in your subjects of concentration, not in the professional courses in education. And this is something that you hear constantly from your professors in these areas. How can this help but affect your attitudes toward preparation for teaching?

Another factor enters in. I doubt if we give credit to many of you undergraduates for possessing any common sense. There are still many things that can be learned only on the job, and yet we assume that we must try to prepare you to meet all emergencies before you even get on the job. And don't forget—there are many who will never get on the job.

We ourselves prate about deferred values. Aren't there deferred values in teacher education? We talk about needs. Do we think we can meet the needs of everybody by emphasizing and particularizing the needs that some will have and that others never will have? What about contingency versus certainty in our courses in education? What about every vested interest coming into the picture and saying, "You surely must see to it that each prospective teacher must have this taught to him because he may have occasion to use it some day, or because a certain teacher did use it the other day?" Aren't we falling into the same fallacy as does the mathematics teacher who tells the youngster that who knows but that the day may come when he will have occasion to use some obscure phase of mathematics?

Another thing that escapes our attention is that you prospective teachers are, after all, a cross section of the society from which you come. You have the most varied social, economic, and cultural backgrounds. With some, the background is extremely meager, with others, it is full and rich, some will always be followers, a few will be leaders. Most of you will be average in about everything. That's one reason you are preparing to be teachers. Life for the teacher is not quite so competitive. The job offers a fair degree of security, and so the most venturesome strike out in some other direction.

sophists in Greece. When the Christian church took over and instituted monasticism, it was a natural development that the studies in which the monks engaged could not be in and of themselves self-sufficient. They had to be passed on to the novitiates in order to prepare them for the Church. When the need came for preparation other than that for the priesthood, there arose the medieval universities of law, theology, philosophy, and medicine, out of which came the teachers in each of these fields; for the teacher was the one who knew the most. The Protestant Reformation brought new demands. Secondary school youth could not then be instructed by priests. The secular university became the institution that produced the learned ones who would then teach either in university or secondary school.

And so, you see, we have a most reasonable basis for the belief that all that a teacher needed was more knowledge than that possessed by his pupils. His task was to see that his pupils acquired what they knew so that some day they might know as much as he did. Knowledge was the important thing. Knowledge marked the educated man. Consequently, the more a man knew, the higher was the esteem in which he was held. This held true, no matter what profession a man intended to follow. All our universities, continental and American, in the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries, emphasized the acquisition of knowledge as the only thing needed by one who intended to teach or who accidentally fell into it.

Teacher Education in England

The tradition was one "whereby elementary school teachers both finished their own education and began their professional training in a two-years training college run by a local authority or by one of the denominational bodies, while secondary school teachers were mostly university products who had taken a year of professional training after graduation."¹ The English still have faith in scholarship and personality as the winning qualities in a secondary school teacher. Examples of this attitude are prevalent in fiction and biography. An illustration is *Good-bye, Mr. Chips* by James Hilton. It wasn't the teaching of Latin as carried on by Mr. Chips that brought

¹ A. C. F. Beales, *The Yearbook of Education*, Evans Brothers, Ltd., London, 1948, p. 49.

his influence to bear upon the boys. It was the aura of his personality that was woven into the character of the lads who had to study Latin under him.

Nevertheless, there are movements underway to place teaching on the secondary level on a more professional basis.² One group advocates the grouping of training colleges into "university schools of education" to prepare teachers for both junior and secondary schools. The other would leave the training schools and universities as they are, but provide preparation in both by offering courses that differ with respect to the type of school in which the candidate is preparing to teach but that are equal in status.

The Education Act of 1944 has made it imperative that England raise the number of 200,000 prewar teachers to something like 300,000. In addition, it has had the task of replacing those teachers who would fill the normal complement, but who were taken out by the war, many of them never to return. There has thus been created an emergency situation even more pressing than the one that has faced us in the postwar years. Ordinarily, teachers have been prepared in training colleges administered by a local education authority or a voluntary body and in university or college training departments. The emergency made it necessary to set up so-called emergency training colleges for men and women who were returning from the armed forces. An intensive training course of 1 year was followed by a probationary period of 2 years.

The training colleges take those who have reached the age of 18 and who are graduates of a grammar school. The course includes work in the academic and professional areas plus student teaching. It is a 2-year course. There are also some specialized colleges in *physical education for women, homemaking, and art*. There is a movement to extend the 2 years to 3, but the shortage of teachers prevents its adoption.

Training departments in universities add a fourth year to the three that have been spent in acquiring a university degree. This is a year of professional training, and prepares for teaching in the secondary schools.

² In February, 1952, I visited a physics class in Bishopshalt Grammar School, Middlesex. A student teacher from the University of London was observing this class.

There was a time, similar to that in this country, when no attention was paid to so-called certification. In other words, no professional preparation was expected of the teacher. When the change took place, it was the elementary teacher who became certificated or "recognized," while teachers in the secondary schools remained "unrecognized." Present regulations are that teachers must have taken a recognized course of training, possess a university degree, or meet such other qualifications as may be set up by the Minister of Education. When the shortage of teachers has been overcome, all "recognized" teachers must have had some professional training. In addition, all teachers in publicly maintained schools will be on probation during their first year of teaching. They will be placed in such schools as can provide the necessary type of supervision.

The Minister of Education has the power to set basic salaries for schools maintained by local education authorities. Additions may be made for those teaching in the London area, for those who are university graduates or who have more than the minimum 2 years of training, and for those who hold posts of responsibility in secondary schools. There is a differential of about 20 percent in favor of men teachers.

Teachers enjoy the privilege of a pension system, to which teacher and employer each contribute 5 percent each of the teacher's salary. Permanently incapacitated teachers may be pensioned under age 65, and gratuities are granted for teachers who die in service. The Exchequer bears the cost of administering the system.³

Teacher Education in France

Candidates for teaching must pass the last part of the *baccalauréat*. The French movie, *Passion for Life*, portrays the way a corresponding type of examination is conducted on the elementary level, with a board of examiners doing the examining and the teacher being one of the bystanders. The *baccalauréat* admits the candidate to the university, where he enters the faculty of letters or the faculty of science. Since scholarship and intellectual attainments⁴ have been

³ Much of the information on this section was obtained from *A Guide to the Educational System of England and Wales*, Ministry of Education, Pamphlet 2, Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1945. Reprinted 1952.

⁴ "In French secondary and higher education booklore had been the dominant, almost the only feature. Physical education of any form played an in-

the chief goal of the French secondary school, the preparation of its teachers stressed scholarship and intellectual attainments. The program has been and still is a most strenuous one, influenced, no doubt, by the fact that a position in an institution of higher education is contingent upon the work done as a teacher in a lycée. Henri Bergson, the author of *Creative Evolution*, taught in the lycées of Angers and Clermont, and Henri IV in Paris, before he became a professor at the Ecole Normale Supérieure and at the Collège de France.

At the university special preparation for teaching is not stressed. At the end of a 3-year period an examination is taken. If it is passed successfully, the candidate is granted a *Licence*. This does not qualify him to teach, but it does enable him to take the next examination, the *agrégation* or the *certificat d'aptitude l'enseignement*, the former admitting him to teach in the lycée and university, and the latter in the collège. The *agrégation* is a *sine qua non* for one who expects to advance in the teaching profession. The third degree, *Doctor*, is conferred after the candidate has publicly presented and discussed a thesis.

In October, 1930, new teacher education conditions became operative. Candidates for teaching positions are now required to undergo a probationary period of 2 years, spent in a secondary school under the supervision of a director and a critic teacher.

"Graduates whose candidature has been approved by the Minister, upon the recommendation of the Director of Secondary Education and on advice of a commission composed of the rectors and the inspectors-general, are eligible for nomination as probationary teachers. The above-mentioned commission draws up a list in order of merit of all the candidates in each subject, account being taken of the examination marks, the

dates when the candidate obtained his various certificates, the opinions of his professors and of the dean, and a brief report from the rector.³

During the two-year period probationers have from six to nine hours' teaching a week under the direction of their counsellor. They attend the latter's classes or those of other teachers and are initiated into the whole life of, and problems in, an educational establishment. Furthermore, every fortnight they meet at the academic centre for instruction in psychology and general education as well as to learn about those institutions connected with education such as vocational guidance, schools for backward children, etc.

At the end of two years probationers sit for the examination of the certificate of proficiency for secondary school teaching, which is divided into two parts. One part is of a practical nature and can be passed only during the second years' probation, the other part is theoretical, and the two are quite independent one of another. Only probationers having passed the practical part, however, can be admitted to the theoretical part of the examination.

The practical part includes half a days' teaching in the presence of the examiners, in the classes where the probationer usually teaches. This is followed by an oral test on teaching methods and finally an examination of all documents, such as copy-books and corrected exercises, etc., able to help the examiners to form an opinion.⁴

Teacher Education in Germany

Before the time of Hitler, the teacher education program in Germany was more exacting than it became after his advent to power. Now that the war is over, the program has largely reverted to its previous form. Consequently, the picture that is presented today is similar enough to the one that characterized prewar Germany, so that one description will suffice for both.

It will not be possible to tell you what has happened in each of the 4 zones in Western Germany, so we shall confine our description to what has transpired in the American zone. You must realize that, so long as the four powers "reside" in their respective zones, there will be a tendency to influence the character of the program for the education of teachers, because each country tends to lean in the di-

³ According to this ranking, if there are 20 positions open, the top 20 will receive appointments. Once being given this position, the teacher is considered a civil servant and is promoted and protected much as a civil service employee is in this country.

⁴ *International Yearbook of Education*, UNESCO, 1951, pp. 114, 115.

rection of its own practices. It is true that the four powers did issue directives concerning the reorganization of the whole German school system, but, when they ceased holding their regular meetings in 1948, each occupying country began to interpret and enforce these directives in varying degrees of compliance. Then, when the West German Republic was recognized in 1951 as an autonomous government, the issuance of all regulations concerning schools and teacher education was returned into the hands of German authorities.

The German university, you must remember, is composed of various faculties, philosophy, law, medicine, theology, and natural science. The person who plans to teach takes his work in philosophy, specializes, from the beginning, in the related areas in which he was interested. He experiences nothing of the type of general education that you are supposed to have as part of your preparation. First of all, he must have taken his *Abitur* in a secondary school, after which he spends 8 semesters in a university preparing himself to take the special examination (*Prüfung für das Lehramt an höheren Schulen*), known as the First State Examination, which consists of oral and written parts dealing with the general phases of philosophy, German literature, and religion. Combinations for the special phase may be: French and English or Latin; history and geography; or pure mathematics and physics.

For the written examination, the candidate is allowed 16 weeks in which to prepare an essay in his major field of specialization. A doctor's dissertation may be substituted for the essay. The oral examination lasts approximately one hour for each major subject and a half hour for each minor. The candidate can take a reexamination only once.

him his special methods in a seminar that meets 2 hours every other week. The *Einführender Lehrer* corresponds to your supervising student teacher, and the *Mentor* is what you know as a critic teacher. Most of the first year is spent in observation and participation.

The second year (*Probejahr*) is being restored to the place it occupied before Hitler, who had reduced the apprenticeship teaching to only 1 year. One reason may be that he was forced to do so to meet an emergency shortage of teachers. At any rate, most of the states have now added the second year, so that the program is more like old times. The seminar and special methods meetings continue, but observation gives way to student teaching, which can become a full-time job. The official staff members will observe the candidate conduct some demonstration lessons and evaluate his work as a part of his record. He completes his *Probejahr* by writing on a topic dealing with some general phase of education, giving 2 demonstration lessons, one in his major area before his own class and one in his minor area before a class that he has not taught, and by taking an oral examination in which he has to explain or defend some phase of teaching in general and in his major and minor areas.

Upon the successful completion of this final state examination he becomes a *Studienassessor* and will be appointed to a regular position when a vacancy occurs in his special areas. After a period of from 5 to 15 years he goes on tenure, if he is teaching at that time, and is called *Studienrat*. He has reached his goal.

Teacher Education in Russia

The problem of suitable teachers and teacher preparation was a difficult one in the early days of the Soviets. There just were not enough of them, and those that they had were either hostile to the party or ill-equipped to perform their new tasks. It was here that the *Komsomol* and the *Pioneers* came to the rescue, in that they tried to compensate for inadequate teaching and incomplete equipment by their extreme willingness to coöperate and assist in every way possible.

The question of having fully qualified teachers is still acute inasmuch as the establishment of so many hundreds of new schools and courses has kept ahead of the teacher training facilities. Matters are further complicated by the existence of the incomplete and complete

secondary schools. Mention has already been made of the hope of making the compulsory school age 18 and thereby eliminating the incomplete school. The pedagogical technicum receives candidates for teaching in nursery and primary schools at the age of 15 or 16 and gives them a 3-year training. Those preparing to teach in the incomplete and complete secondary schools take a 4-year course in a pedagogical institute. This institution parallels in value the work done in the university. The candidate specializes in a teaching field, takes courses in education, psychology, and educational psychology, and also studies a core curriculum that includes the history of the Communist party, government, a foreign language, physical and military training, physiology, and some handwork.

During his third year he is assigned to a particular school where he undergoes a period of observation under competent supervision. This is followed by a carefully planned demonstration lesson conducted in the presence of his fellow students, supervisor, and critic teacher. Thereafter he assists the classroom teacher in the performance of regular class and extraclass activities. Upon receiving his certificate to teach he does not have to worry about a position, since the demand is greater than the supply. But he does have to maintain his professional status by participation in teacher education conferences and in all educational affairs that concern his clientele. So great is the demand for secondary school teachers that special short-course pedagogical institutes offer opportunities to primary school teachers to prepare to teach in them. Teachers are held in great esteem in their communities, since they also represent a very high form of communist idealism.

TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

The Rewards of Teaching

Dewey has said that the key to happiness is to be found in discovering what one is best fitted to do and then finding the opportunity to do it. To the person who enjoys teaching for the joy that he gets out of it, there comes an abiding satisfaction that actually makes for happiness. To sell an automobile, a davenport, a suit of clothes, a tasty dinner, a diamond ring is one thing. To sell ideas is another. At this point an up-and-coming advertising executive may

object and say that his aim, too, is to sell ideas. But is it the same? Isn't his main purpose to get you to buy his product so that his client may profit financially from its sale? Personal and material gain are involved. Not so with the teacher. When he sells ideas to the youth with whom he associates, he doesn't profit materially from any success that he may have. If he accomplishes his objective, let us say, to get his students to see and enjoy the pictures in a beautiful poem, his reward is one that can never be measured in dollars and cents. His is an inner satisfaction that transcends the acquisition of pelf or lucre, although it seems, sometimes, that a teacher's efforts along this line are seldom rewarded. Students don't come straight out and say just how much what the teacher has done has meant to them.

Bernard Shaw's jibe at the teaching profession, "Those who can, do, those who can't, teach" may have been characteristic of the teachers of his acquaintance. Any perusal of an international, British, or American *Who's Who* will reveal that many contributions to the world's cultural and scientific achievements have been made by teachers. And, where evidence of tangible accomplishments in the form of bridges, dams, novels, histories, and high office is absent, we find testimony to the more subtle influences of great personalities upon the lives and characters of their pupils. Arnold at Rugby, Saunderson of Oundle, Palmer at Harvard, Phelps at Yale—beacon lights in the field of teaching. A tremendous amount of "doing" goes into the activities of such teachers. And it is such teachers that we would like all aspirants to the profession to become, although we know that such a hope is a vain one.

Why? For the very simple reason that teachers are subject to the same groupings that are characteristic of all professions and vocations. We have brilliant architects and poor ones, but most of them are average. We have outstanding mechanics and inefficient ones, but most of them are average. We have expert surgeons and bunglers, but most of them are average. And so we have superior teachers and no-accounts, but most are average.

It is from these superior teachers that we obtain not only inspiration but improved methods of teaching. They belong to the conscious-aware type of intelligence. If our undergraduate and even graduate classes were filled with such people, we would have more excuse for expecting them to understand the significance and ap-

plication of our more advanced approach. But such is not the case. We rejoice over the good ones and tear our hair over the poor ones. Realistically, we must face the fact that we can't expect a big majority of prospective teachers whom we have in our classes either to comprehend some of the ideas we thrust at them or to be able to use them when they are on the job. It takes a *good* teacher to teach language arts and social studies as a core. It takes a *good* teacher to use the project method effectively. It takes a *good* teacher to think up a new way to perform an old trick.

Most prospective and actual teachers are of the latent intelligence type. They have to be shown what to do in a way that they can connect with their own experiences. They're not going to teach in a university-laboratory school. They're going out into Smithburg and Pineville and College Corners. They're going to be average humans, in an average situation, doing an average job. They will be in the middle, with superior teachers at one end and ineffective ones at the other. That's just life, and we had better face it in our teacher-preparation courses.

There is much to be said about teaching, both as a profession and as a semi-profession. The distinction here is between those who stay in it permanently and those who use it as a stepping stone to marriage or some other career. So often in our preservice training courses we assume that all of you fully intend to remain in the teaching profession, when all we need to do is to look at some of you and realize that you are not long for this particular world, if we may say so. This statement is not made with the idea of finding fault with what you do. Of course, most of you should get married and try to stay married. What we, who teach you in courses such as this one, should realize is that we have an obligation to prepare you not only for the few years in which you do your teaching but also for your profession as parents, when you need to have some understanding of the school for whose support you are paying taxes and to which you will be sending your own children.

Even so, while you do act in the capacity of teacher, it might be worth while to consider some of the compensations and rewards that accompany its performances. A teacher's workday is what he makes it. He can be satisfied with the 7- to 8-hour day of teaching classes, keeping study hall, and attending to routine matters, or he

can also sponsor some form of extracurricular activity and attend the various school functions. Usually he has his Saturdays to do with as he pleases.

"All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy." The statistics are not at hand relative to the mortality from heart disease of those engaged in teaching as compared with those in various forms of business. I am referring to those who are not administrators. I doubt if as many proportionately of teachers die of heart disease as do those who are in administrative positions. The teacher has more time to play. I said "has" not "takes." When a salesman invites a prospective customer to a golf game or a night club, it isn't play for the salesman. He is constantly worried over his success or failure to put over a big deal. His playtime is business. Not so with the teacher. His school year runs from 9 to 9½ or 10 months. He has his Saturdays and Sundays free. Usually, that is. He has vacations during the school year at Thanksgiving, Christmas, and Easter. What he does during these vacation times is his own business.

During the shorter vacations he may go to the "big city" to see some plays, he may visit his family, he may visit friends, he may just stay at home and catch up on his reading, or he may rest. In the summer several possibilities are open to him. He may go to a regular summer school to work toward an advanced degree or to attend a workshop that will give him some new ideas and inspiration to make him a better teacher. He may join one of the many travel groups that conduct educational and recreational tours to Europe, South America, or to interesting parts of the United States. He may do this, if he has saved up enough money for the trip. He may obtain summer employment in factories, on farms, in business establishments, on the road as a salesman, and in summer camps as counselor. He may actually go on an outdoor vacation at the seashore, in the woods, on the mountains, swimming, bathing, fishing, hunting, and roughing it. Or he may stay home to spend his time gardening, puttering around, and resting up.

Reasons for Teaching

If someone were to ask you what it was that you saw in teaching that enticed you to try it out, would you have some ready responses on the tip of your tongue other than that it was one way to earn

a living? We recognize readily enough that one does not live by bread alone. Unless we are so indolent as to rely upon the charity of others for our support, to attain the economic efficiency objective for ourselves it is necessary that we earn our living via some gainful occupation. We have already learned that the majority of the world's *workers do not need to learn the techniques of their jobs during their school days*. It is also true that many college graduates may obtain positions in the business world and learn the details of their jobs during a training period managed and run by the organization that employs them. This is not true for doctors, lawyers, dentists, ministers, engineers, scientists, and teachers. During, or even before, their college careers they must make a decision as to which course to pursue, because they must meet the requirements of each particular profession in order to be accepted later into the fold.

You cannot expect to become a teacher just because you would like to teach. Certain restrictions or requirements must be satisfied and met. You must have some reasons for making a choice that will determine the direction of your efforts to obtain a bachelor's degree. Let us see if we can present and discuss briefly what some of these reasons or incentives may be. We shall not enumerate them. It will be sufficient for our purpose just to present them as they come to mind.

Imitation is a large factor. If someone in your family has been or still is a teacher, and you admire this someone, there may be a halo effect that urges you to emulate him or her. As a child you may have played teacher, just as you also might have played fireman, nurse, truck driver, actress, etc. Imitation is responsible for the occupational choices of many people. Of course, there is also what might be called family succession. Father is a lawyer, son becomes a lawyer. Mother was a nurse, daughter becomes a nurse. The list can be multiplied in many ways.

This next reason applies more to you girls than it does to you young men. It becomes necessary or respectable that you earn your own living. Teaching has been considered a genteel profession, one that young ladies might enter upon without *doing damage either to their reputations or to their social standing*. Since we find that women of today have entered the business and professional fields and that many of them are working on assembly lines in factories,

teaching as a profession for women has lost some of its exclusiveness. Nevertheless, there are still many parents who, if a daughter wishes to work long enough to save money for her trousseau, will give her their blessing only if she consents to prepare to teach.

Young men used to use teaching as a stepping stone to other careers much more frequently than they do today. Ultimate goals a quarter of a century ago were law or medicine, and teaching offered them a chance to earn money and save it so as to see them through law or medical school. It is more difficult and time-delaying to do this today, since a bachelor's degree is a prerequisite. In the days when one could teach on no or little college work it was comparatively easy to teach school, go to college, teach school, go to college, etc., until the cycle had been completed and the coveted degree had been earned.

Then there are those who are more or less imbued with what we call the missionary spirit. They possess a service conscience that urges them to go into an activity whereby they may contribute something of themselves to the betterment of society. Preachers, social service workers, medical missionaries belong to this same group. The material rewards are important enough, but they do not overshadow the spiritual rewards to which Jesus referred, when he said in the parable, "Well done, good and faithful servant. . . . Enter thou into the joy of thy Lord."⁷

Drawbacks to Teaching

All is not gold that glitters. Undergraduates who have gone out into full-time student teaching have returned to the campus with the complaint that the job of teaching had been overglamorized in their courses in education. They expressed themselves as favoring a presentation of the dark side of the picture as well as the bright. In a previous section of this unit we have done the latter. So, for a moment, let us see what the dark side looks like.

Many of you are connected with an institution that boasts of a laboratory or demonstration school. Excellent as the work may be in this school, you must not look upon it as representative of what you will find in the ordinary, run-of-the-mill high school. The laboratory school may reveal to you excellent practices that may be

⁷ Matthew XXV, 23.

carried on under more or less ideal conditions, but, unfortunately, you are not shown how such practices can be performed in or adapted to an average school. Thus, when you find yourself in such a school, you moan and groan because everything isn't like what it was back home.

There is a tendency in your classes in education to draw illustrations of good practices from the larger high schools, which, with 500 pupils as the minimum enrollment, include only from 10 to 15 percent of the total number of schools in any state. It is expected that those schools, other things being equal, will have better facilities in library, science and practical arts laboratories, and recreation than do the smaller schools. You will have to adjust such conditions to those in which you will find yourself.

Here are some illustrations of what you will be up against: a homemaking room with no sewing machines, a basketball floor with a ceiling only 12 feet high, a biology laboratory with no worktables or microscopes, a classroom in which English, mathematics, and bookkeeping are taught, a library with old textbooks only and no encyclopedias, a stage in the assembly room 8 feet deep, no teacher rest room, no intercommunication system, your classroom used every period of the day, so that you have to sit in the assembly room when you aren't teaching, no cafeteria, so that you have to bring your lunch or eat down town, no maps past 1940 for your history classes, no gas or running water in the chemistry "laboratory," splintery floors in the corridors and classrooms, and no duplicating machine anywhere.

A combination of the above situations would be enough to cause a teacher to quit in despair, but no school can be quite that bad. What you must inure yourself to is that you won't always find what you like or want at your finger tips. Try to rationalize the factors that were responsible for such lacks and then set out to improve conditions. Write back to your education instructors and tell them what it was that they failed to call to your attention when you were in their courses.

You may not realize just what your duties will be. You may even find that, when you get on the job, your teaching schedule will be different from the one that you were promised. Last-minute adjustments had to be made so that you find yourself saddled with a class

in your second or even third teaching subject. If you are an English teacher, or any other kind of teacher, in a small high school, you will find that you have 4 or 5 different preparations to make. But this isn't all. There will be committees to which you will be assigned as a member. You will be expected to attend the meetings regularly and to do your share of the committee work. Most of the meetings will be held after school time. And don't forget extracurricular activities. You will be expected to sponsor a club, sell tickets at plays and athletic events, chaperone parties, take charge of a homeroom, attend all school functions, and assist with publications or stage productions. In other words, you may find your time taken up much more than you thought it would be.

Then there is the matter of the community, whether it is in a village, town, or large city, and whether it is in a so-called cultural center or remote from one. The larger the community the less what you do is the concern of everybody. Certain proprieties are expected of teachers in the smaller communities that are nobody's business in the larger ones. So be sure to check on the community's attitude toward such things as dress, cosmetics, dancing, card playing, smoking, drinking, and dating. There is no need to go against the mores of the group too adversely so as to make you unhappy in your work. If you think that you can't adjust to the expectancies of the community, you will be wise not to go there to begin with.

Teacher Certification

"Teachers are born, not made." Many sincere individuals actually believe that this statement is true. Their generalization proceeds backwards from the good teachers whom they know to the supposition that they were good to begin with. They don't know what steps were taken by these teachers or what experiences these teachers suffered or enjoyed that brought them to the pinnacle of success, more or less. It is just one of those cases where we judge appearances and draw unwarranted conclusions.

Of course, it is true that there are some individuals who seem, almost from the beginning, to possess those qualities that ensure successful teaching. But they are in the great minority. It would be wonderful if there were only enough pupils in our schools to be taught only by these outstanding teachers. But that's not the way

method has been supplemented by the submission of credentials from the college or university in which the individual did his undergraduate work. Only 20 states include the examination as a part of the requirement for granting certificates. Because of competition, 6 states have set up a specific requirement, such as a course in the history of the state, in order to cut down on the number of out-of-state applicants. Because of this same competition, certain large cities require all applicants to take a special examination set up by the local school authorities. This is in addition to the certificate granted by the state.

The National Teacher Examination is also another instrument that local schools are requiring applicants to take.

There is a great variety in the type of certificates issued, as well as in their coverage. In the early days, the certificate was a blanket one, which enabled the teacher to teach any subject on any level. Little by little, more and more restrictions have been added, until it is impossible in some states to teach on any but a certain level and to teach any but the subjects listed on the certificate. The result has been a tremendous amount of stratification and departmentalization on the secondary level. Some educators consider this situation a decided detriment to the enjoyment of flexibility in the organization and administration of schools. They believe that they should be allowed more freedom to shift teachers from one level to another or from one area to another if such a shifting will produce better teaching and a happier student personnel.

The teacher emergency problem of the 50's made it imperative that we secure more teachers for the elementary schools. Provisions were made either to issue outright emergency certificates to persons with secondary school certificates or to have them take a few courses on the elementary level. This was just a temporary arrangement. The State of Washington, however, has dealt with the problem in realistic fashion in that it now issues what it calls a general certificate, entitling the holder to teach in all the elementary and secondary schools of the state. All teacher education institutions in the state prepare teachers for this general certificate rather than for one in the elementary or secondary fields. Teachers from outside the state are admitted on the bases of the old elementary and

secondary certificates, but they must convert them to the general certificate by the end of their third year of teaching.

The stereotype, if such it can be called, certificate for secondary school teachers assumes a pattern something like this: (1) graduation from a 4-year college or university; (2) the equivalent of a year's work in general education for purposes of providing a wider background; (3) a prescribed number of hours in the field or fields in which teaching is to be done; (4) certain courses in professional education, the most common of which are educational psychology, methods of teaching, and principles of secondary education; and (5) laboratory or student teaching.

Accrediting Agencies and Teacher Qualifications

Another side to the teacher certification situation is the position taken by the regional accrediting agencies. They act as a sort of interstate educational commission to pass on the common qualifications of teachers for the member schools in the states over which they exercise jurisdiction. In some cases the requirements of the accrediting association are lower than those set forth by an individual state, in others they are the same, but in no case are they higher than the state requirements.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools happens to be the largest of these accrediting agencies, and so we shall present to you its requirements.⁸ Its more than 3000 member secondary schools in 19 states employ some 66,000 teachers, all of whom are expected to meet certain requirements. First of all, a teacher must have graduated from a college or university accredited by the Association or one of the other Associations. (Reciprocity is practiced more extensively between the Associations than between states.) If he is a graduate of a nonaccredited college he must, if he is from out of state, do 6 semester hours of graduate work in an accredited institution, or, if he is a graduate of a college within the state in which he is doing his teaching, he must make up his deficiency in a manner determined by the state committee.

The teacher must have had a minimum of 15 semester hours in

⁸ *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools*, Commission on Secondary Schools, North Central Association, 1948.

professional courses in education, and he must present 15 semester hours in each field in which he is to do his teaching. This latter requirement is equivalent to or less than that required by most states, especially since the Association emphasizes the area rather than the subject side. What this means is that the 15 hours cover the field of science, not a particular science. The vested interests of physics will wring their hands in agony over the fact that a teacher in a North Central Association secondary school is permitted to teach physics if he has had only 1 course in it in college, and only a minimum total of 15 hours in all sciences, but such is the case. The same thing is true in the area of social studies. Again the total is 15, but a teacher may teach American history, with only 1 course in college in American history to his credit. Furthermore, a teacher of a foreign language or a teacher of mathematics may be credited for 2 semester hours up to a maximum of 6 for each year's study of the subject in a secondary school. Therefore it is possible for a teacher to meet the requirement in mathematics or in a foreign language by taking a minimum of 9 semester hours in college.

The reason for such minima is that the Association cannot set its requirements any higher than the maxima to which any state may go. To do anything else would be unrealistic.

Tenure

To what extent should caprice enter into the appointment or retention of a teacher? Are conditions governing a teacher's contract and employment any different from those followed in industry or business? We all know that there was a time when an individual was hired and fired at the whim of his employer. History also tells us how, in feudal times, vassals belonged to an estate and could not go elsewhere without the lord's permission. Extremes are never a satisfactory solution to anything. It is a part of human nature to attempt to break the bonds of any degrading or dehumanizing controls. Revolutions have their roots in the gardens of tyranny. The French and Russian revolutions found the common man arising to burst the shackles of serfdom. Labor unions arose and grew strong in their united efforts to dispossess the employer of his power to treat his employees like slaves. Enforced security and discontent, on the one hand, and enforced insecurity and unhappiness, on the other, were

or refused reemployment except at an official meeting of the board of education. . . . Employees who are to be dismissed or refused reemployment are given reasons for the action taken by the board of education and are given an opportunity for a hearing before official action is taken."

Notice the word "permanency" in the first quotation. It is this permanency of tenure that identifies a school as an institution. When a graduate can return to his high school, 5, 10, 20 years after graduation and find there the teachers whom he had when he was in school he feels at home. The building, yes, but not the way the teachers affect him. They are the school. He thinks in terms of them, even when they are gone. How much more, then, the school means to him to see his former teachers still on the job.

The idea of tenure is seemingly sound, and yet there are some disadvantages to it. One has already been mentioned—the caution or hesitancy on the part of employing officials to sign the fourth or sixth contract that would put the teacher on permanent tenure. The excuse given is that the school has, in the past, placed teachers on permanent tenure and then has lived to regret this action. Teachers who had shown promise by the end of their probationary period had belied this promise and had become obstacles to the school's progress. So, they reasoned, to avoid a repetition of such a mishap, the best thing to do was just not to put any more teachers on tenure.

The other unfavorable side to tenure is the teacher himself. He will work with vim and vigor during his probationary years so as to attract attention to himself and to ensure his being placed on tenure. Then when this goal has been attained, he says to himself, "Well, here I am. My job is secure. I don't have to worry now. I can let down and take things easy." Not only does he take things easy. He feels so sure of himself that he takes unkindly any suggestions for the improvement of his work. He literally "thumps his nose" at any such suggestions. Like Little Jack Horner he says complacently, "What a good teacher am I!" His persistence in this attitude makes a reactionary of him and a millstone around the necks of his fellow teachers. In his case, tenure has worked to the decided disadvantage of the school and the pupils whose lot it is to be taught by him. It is no wonder that schools don't want to be burdened with the likes of him. They ought to have some recourse to help them

out, such as requiring every 5 years some evidence of growth in the way of educational travel, participation in professional meetings, or the pursuit of advanced work.

In our search for security in this uncertain world, we forget that our forebears took gamble after gamble in their adventure into the strange or unknown. We would not be where we are today had our ancestors been content to settle down and stay in one place just because they were sure of that one place. Their adventuresome spirits could not brook such stagnation. And so they trekked westward by foot, horse, and wagon, braving weather, physical discomfort, wild animals, and Indians. Should our own desire for security deaden within us the spirit of educational adventure?

Teacher Supply and Demand

Although greatly increased numbers of college students are entering preparation for high school teaching, there is notable lack of balance in the distribution of these college students among the various high school teaching fields. Postwar college students are following the familiar pre-war pattern in which a very large percentage of intending teachers concentrated in a few fields. This points to an early oversupply in these fields while shortages continue to exist in other fields. . . .

It is evident that soundly conceived guidance programs are not in operation in a vast majority of the colleges in which students qualify for standard high school teaching certificates. Perhaps the effective development of such guidance programs depends upon (1) the assembling of more accurate information concerning "demand for" high school teachers than is now available and (2) courageous and farsighted leadership on the part of college authorities in developing effective programs of selective admission and selective retention in teacher education curriculums.*

Too early concentration in highly specialized areas begins with the first year of college. If such specialization could be postponed for a couple of years (if not 2, then at least 1), the individual who is planning upon going into teaching would have a much better chance to select these teaching areas in which he might later find a better chance to secure a job. The choice of so-called majors is so often a matter of happenstance, anyway, that a little delay in

* Ray C. Maul, *Teacher Supply and Demand in the United States*, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1948.

making a decision may be a help rather than a hindrance. If the first year or two of college could be the type called general education, during which time the student would be introduced to the broad fields of knowledge, and if, at the same time, there existed, as Maul suggested, a good guidance program, it seems reasonable to assume that the student would select his teaching areas in terms of the opportunity they present for the securing a job, and of his own interests in the areas. Such advice is somewhat belated in any guidance to be passed out to you, whose choices have already been made. But you have undergraduate friends to whom you can pass the word that it might be well for them to seek good counsel before they have made any final decisions.

The way our university and college programs are set up, a penalty of a semester or two faces the individual who changes his mind about his major or concentration area. Rather than go to the expense of extra time and money, he will continue in his present path because it is cheaper, not because he will be happier. Because he won't be.

An important item that has not been mentioned has to do with teaching combinations. Let us face the facts. The beginning teacher is not always so fortunate as to be employed to teach in only his major field of concentration. So often he will be expected to teach in a second, or even a third, area. Here, again, a decision will have to be made, because, if he chooses an odd combination, he stands an odd chance of getting a job. The most likely combinations are: English and foreign language, English and social studies, mathematics and a science, physical education for men and social studies. Areas most likely to be taught without a combination are: business, art, music, industrial arts, homemaking, and speech.

Professional Organizations

You will hear a great deal about in-service education of teachers. In our discussion of tenure, mention was made of the necessity of keeping professionally abreast of the times and how difficult it is to get some teachers on tenure to keep mentally and professionally alert. Much of this can be an individual matter, one that the teacher himself can promote. He does this by at least two means. One is through his reading of professional books and periodicals. The other

is via his membership in professional organizations. Membership, yes, and attendance at conferences and conventions, if possible. The minimum number of such organizations with which a teacher should be affiliated is 3, his state teachers' association, the National Education Association, and the organization that represents his major teaching interest. Membership in each of these three groups brings with it the subscription to the journals that they publish. These periodicals always contain stimulating articles concerning enriched content or improved teaching techniques of value to the reader.

No candle hid under a bushel sheds much light. A teacher who never attends the local, regional, state, or national meetings of his special interest group will never have the opportunity to mingle and exchange ideas with others from near and afar, will never have the opportunity to get personally acquainted with the shining lights in his field, and will never get that thrill that comes from first-hand listening to a message of stimulation, information, and inspiration. But, if he makes a practice of attending the meetings of his professional colleagues, little by little, he too becomes recognized as one of the crowd. Then he gets elected to an office or is invited to participate in a program. He is now coming of age and is beginning to receive the recognition that comes to all who have something of themselves to contribute. This is in-service education at its best.

Professional Ethics

No discussion of teacher preparation is complete without reference to the field of ethics. It is well for all of you to acquaint yourselves with the code that has been developed by the National Education Association. This code is herewith presented for your thoughtful consideration.

WE, THE MEMBERS of the National Education Association of the United States, hold these truths to be self-evident—that the primary purpose of education in the United States is to develop citizens who will safeguard, strengthen, and improve the democracy obtained through a representative government;—that the achievement of effective democracy in all aspects of American life and the maintenance of our national ideals depend upon making acceptable educational opportunities available to all;—that the quality of education reflects the ideals, motives, preparation, and conduct of the members of the teaching profession;—that whoever chooses teach-

6. Adhere to the conditions of a contract until service thereunder has been performed, the contract has been terminated by mutual consent, or the contract has otherwise been legally terminated.
7. Give and expect due notice before a change of position is to be made.
8. Be fair in all recommendations that are given concerning the work of other teachers.
9. Accept no compensation from producers of instructional supplies when one's recommendations affect the local purchase or use of such teaching aids.
10. Engage in no gainful employment, outside of his contract, where the employment affects adversely his professional status or impairs his standing with students, associates, and the community.
11. Cooperate in the development of school policies and assume one's professional obligations thereby incurred.
12. Accept one's obligation to the employing board for maintaining a professional level of service.

FIFTH PRINCIPLE: The teaching profession is distinguished from many other occupations by the uniqueness and quality of the professional relationships among all teachers. Community support and respect are influenced by the standards of teachers and their attitudes toward teaching and other teachers.

In fulfilling the obligations of this fifth principle the teacher will—

1. Deal with other members of the profession in the same manner as he himself wishes to be treated.
2. Stand by other teachers who have acted on his behalf and at his request.
3. Speak constructively of other teachers, but report honestly to responsible persons in matters involving the welfare of students, the school system, and the profession.
4. Maintain active membership in professional organizations and, through participation, strive to attain the objectives that justify such organized groups.
5. Seek to make professional growth continuous by such procedures as study, research, travel, conferences, and attendance at professional meetings.
6. Make the teaching profession so attractive in ideals and practices that sincere and able young people will want to enter it.

TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION

1. What were the qualities possessed by the secondary teacher whom you liked best?

2. What were the qualities possessed by the secondary teacher whom you liked least?
3. Repeat numbers 1 and 2 for your college instructors.
4. Compare and contrast the advantages and disadvantages in teaching with those of some other occupation in which you think you might prefer to engage.
5. In what respect do you, as a prospective teacher, feel that your preparation has been inadequate?
6. If you do not intend to teach, what profit, if any, have you received from this course?
7. Study the secondary teacher certification requirements in your state. What are their strong and weak points?
8. Become acquainted with the requirements for teachers in schools accredited by your regional accrediting association.
9. What instances do you know of any violation of the NEA code of ethics?

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and fast distinction between them. There are 239 national *lycées* and 659 communal *collèges*, 294 called classical, and 365 modern. The total enrollment in 1950 was 412,279.

The Curriculum of the Secondary Schools

All secondary schools offer identical programs of study. All students in classes *sixième* and *cinquième* study the same subjects except for Latin, which all do not have to take. In *quatrième* the student may elect Greek, or a second language, or, in the modern course, physics. Although it may seem somewhat complicated, Tables 18, 19 will reveal the chief characteristics of the curriculum of these schools. You will note that there are two cycles, one of 4 years, at the end of which the pupil may take an examination and leave school, or he may continue into the second cycle.

These two schedules of classes and time allotments give you the best picture of what goes on in a French secondary school that we can offer. You will note certain similarities to our own secondary schools in that there are choices of curricula to be pursued. In classes six and five there are the classical, the modern, and the experimental curricula. More about this third one later. In classes four and three, there are two classical tracks. In classes one and two of the second cycle, the classical tracks have expanded from 2 to 3. Then, in the final, or seventh year, there are only 3, the philosophical, the mathematical, and the experimental science tracks.

All instruction for classes six and five is the same for all students with the exception that some may elect Latin, or a second modern language. Those who plan definitely to prepare for the *baccalauréat* are given the first part of this examination at the end of the *classe première*, and the second part at the end of the *classe terminale*. In some *collèges* there are courses that do not prepare the student for the *baccalauréat*, but that prepare him for business. In 1946, *collèges techniques* and certain *collèges modernes* were permitted to introduce, on the fifth form level, instruction leading to a *baccalauréat technique*. A course of study is made available for all schools, which must be followed rather closely, since all examinations are based on it.¹⁶

¹⁶ *Nouveaux Horaires et Programmes de L'Enseignement du Second Degré*, Quinzième Edition, Librairie Vuibert, Paris, 1952.